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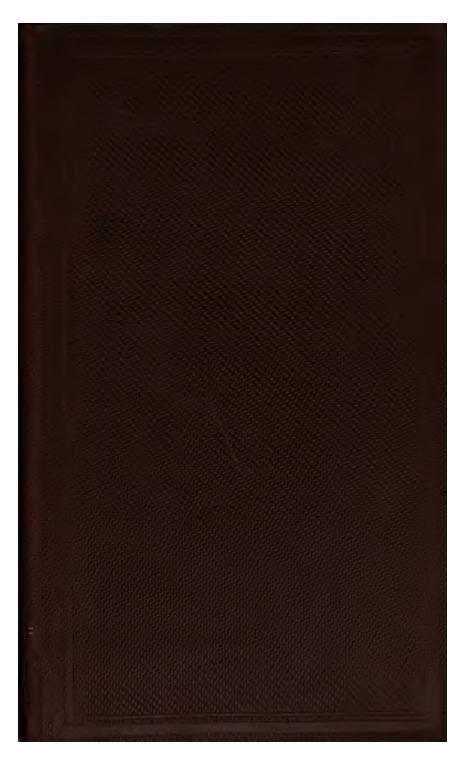
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HAND-BOOK

OF THE

)UBLE" SLIDE RULE,

SHEWING ITS APPLICABLISTS TO

NAVIGATION.

INCLUDING SOME REMARKS ON GREAT CHAILE. WITH USEFUL ASTRONOMICAL MEMORIAL

> BY W. H. BAYLEY, (LATE) H.M. EAST INDIA CIVIL SERVICE

BELL & DALLY, 186, FLERT WILLIAM

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HAND-BOOK

OF THE

"DOUBLE" SLIDE RULE,

SHEWING ITS APPLICABILITY TO

NAVIGATION.

INCLUDING SOME REMARKS ON GREAT CIRCLE SAILING,
AND VARIATION OF THE COMPASS,
WITH USEFUL ASTRONOMICAL MEMORANDA.

BY W. H. BAYLEY, (LATE) H.M. EAST INDIA CIVIL SERVICE.

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PREFACE.

The object of this little work is not only to show the applicability of the "Double" Slide Rule to Navigation, but also to afford some useful explanations to the young seaman. With this view, the Definitions (p. 6), Formulæ (p. 11 and 41), remarks on Mercator's Sailing (pp. 26—30), Dip and Distance of Objects (Appendix B), Great Circle Sailing (p. 86), Variation of the Compass (p. 111), with some useful Astronomical Memoranda (pp. 113—127), and Tables (Appendix F) have been introduced.

The Slide Rule known as "Bevan's," has indeed lines of Sines and Tangents, but being on the back of one of the Slides, and so arranged that they can only be used by measurement with compasses, they are practically as useless as the old standing Gunter (see p. 16 and 24). To remedy this, and make these lines really useful and handy, the author of this work has had them placed on the outside of the second Slide, and so arranged the lines over and under this Slide, that no measurement is

required, and problems are solved as in the old *sliding* Gunter, with this advantage, that we have an instrument of 12 inches, much more accurate and easy to handle than the sliding Gunter of 2 feet. (See p. 56.)

This Trigonometrical Slide is also very handy in *Surveying*, as will be shown in another small treatise about to be published.

The "Double" Slide Rule has on the other face the ordinary Slide, useful in all cases of Arithmetic and Mensuration, as very fully exemplified in a former "Hand-book." But in case those who have the "Double" Slide Rule, should not possess the above work, a brief explanation of the use of the Arithmetical Slide is given in Appendix A.

The Rules are made by "Elliott Brothers," 449, Strand. The price of the Single Slide Rule is 7s.; of the Double, 14s. The lines are very accurately laid down.

W. H. B.

THE

"DOUBLE" SLIDE RULE.

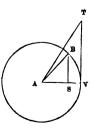
The "Double" or "Two Slide" Rule, has on the obverse side, the arithmetical Slide $\frac{B}{C}$, the uses of which are explained in Appendix

A, and also on the reverse face, the *trigonometrical* Slide $\frac{\text{SIN.}}{\text{TAN.}}$, to which this volume is specially devoted. It will be found of the greatest service in the speedy solution of the ordinary cases occurring in Surveying by angular instruments, and in Navigation; superseding as it does, the use of "Tables."

When the Slide is shut in even with lines A above and below,—that is, when the 1 at the extreme right of the upper A corresponds with 90° on SIN.—and when the 1 on the extreme right of the lower A corresponds with 45° on TAN.—the numbers on the upper A are the Natural Sines, and those on the lower A the Natural Tangents of the angles on the Slide. (Secants are not marked, as they are not required.)

Natural sines and tangents are expressed in terms of the *radius*. Thus in the figure, if the angle $BAV = 48^{\circ} 36'$, the Nat. Sine, or BS, is '750 or $\frac{3}{4}$ the radius AV, whatever may be the actual length of AV.

So again, if the angle TAV = 56° 19′, its Nat. Tan. VT is 1.5, or 1½ times the length of the Radius AV, whatever length AV represents.



The following Note may assist the memory in the case of Angles above 90°:

Angle
$$a$$
 between 90° and 180° $\begin{cases} \text{Sin. } a = \text{Sin. } (180^{\circ} - a) \\ \text{Cosin. } a = \text{Sin. } (a - 90^{\circ}) \end{cases}$
Angle a between 180° and 270° $\begin{cases} \text{Sin. } a = \text{Sin. } (a - 180^{\circ}) \\ \text{Cosin. } a = \text{Sin. } (270^{\circ} - a) \end{cases}$
Angle a between 270° and 360° $\begin{cases} \text{Sin. } a = \text{Sin. } (360^{\circ} - a) \\ \text{Cosin. } a = \text{Sin. } (a - 270^{\circ}) \end{cases}$

The same applies to Tangents and Cotangents, Secants and Cosecants.

SINES.

SHUT the Slide in even, as explained in the previous page, and the following Angles and Natural Sines, will be found to correspond:

Angles. Nat. Sines.	Angles. Nat. Sines.	Angles. Nat. Sines.
$0^{\circ} 35' = .01018$	$5^{\circ} 10' = .09005$	$15^{\circ} 40' = .27004$
$0^{\circ} 55' = .01600$	$8^{\circ} 10' = .14205$	$30^{\circ}\ 00' = .50000$
$1^{\circ} 00' = 01745$	$9^{\circ} 30' = 16505$	$42^{\circ}\ 00' = .66913$
$2^{\circ} \ 00' = \ ^{\circ}03490$	$11^{\circ} 00' = .19081$	$70^{\circ}\ 00' = .93969$
$3^{\circ} \ 40' = .06395$	$13^{\circ}\ 00' = \cdot 22495$	$76^{\circ}\ 00' = 97209$

A few of the above are engraved on the edge of the Rule, as a guide to the accurate setting of the Slide.

The Nat. Sine of 30° is always half the Radius; therefore, whatever number on A is over 90°, its half should be over 30°, whether the Slide is shut in, or partially drawn out; and it is as well always to remember this, as it is a good check to accurate setting, in all problems where the line of SINES is used.

It will be observed that the Slide does not extend far enough to the left, to admit of the use of a smaller angle than 0° 34′ 22″, the Nat. Sine of which is '010 or $\frac{1}{100}$ th of the Radius; but this is of no consequence in practice.

In the best Rules, there is an extra line of Sines on the back of the Slide, arranged so as to give more space to the divisions, and therefore more accuracy in taking out. This is effected by commencing with 5° $44\frac{1}{2}'$, (the Sine of which is 1, or $\frac{1}{10}$ th of the Radius,) and using it with a line D of single Radius engraved under it. Of course it does not suit angles less than 5° $44\frac{1}{2}'$, and it cannot be used in conjunction with either of the lines marked A.

TANGENTS.

SHUT the Slide in even, as explained in page 1, and the following Angles, and Natural Tangents, will be found to correspond:

Angles. Nat. Tan.	Angles. Nat. Tan.	Angles. Nat. Tan.
$0^{\circ} 35' = .01018$	$6^{\circ}\ 10' = \cdot 1080$	$23^{\circ} \ 00' = 4247$
$1^{\circ} 50' = .03201$	$13^{\circ}\ 00' = \cdot 2309$	$27^{\circ} 00' = .5095$
$3^{\circ} 50' = .06700$	$16^{\circ}\ 10' = .2899$	$35^{\circ}\ 00' = .7002$
$4^{\circ}\ 00' = .06993$	$18^{\circ}\ 00' = \cdot 3249$	$45^{\circ}~00' = 1.00$

Some of these are engraved on the edge of the Rule, as a guide to the accurate setting of the Slide.

It will be observed that the Slide does not extend far enough to the left, to admit of the use of a smaller angle than 0° 34′ 23″, the Nat. Tan. of which is 010, or $\frac{1}{100}$ th of the Radius; nor does it extend far enough to the right to admit of a larger angle than 45°, which is equal to Radius, or 1.00.

The first deficiency is of no consequence in practice. As to the second, all the ordinary problems in Navigation (to which the Slide Rule is particularly suited) are worked without exceeding an angle of 45° or 4 Points. However, on the best Rules, there is an extru line of Tangents on the back of the Slide, which being shut in even with the line A of the lower stock, provides for all the angles between 5° 43',* (the Nat. Tan. of which is 100, or 10th of the

^{*} Half a Point of the Compass is 5° 37′ 30″.

Radius),—and 84° 18', (the Nat. Tan. of which is 10.00, or 10 times the Radius). Thus we shall find

Angles. Nat. Tan.	Angles. Nat. Tan.
$49^{\circ} \ 00' = 1.150$	$76^{\circ} \ 20' = 4.112$
$58^{\circ} 00' = 1.600$	$80^{\circ} 50' = 6.197$
$66^{\circ} \ 30' = 2.300$	$83^{\circ} \ 40' = 9.010$

The method, (when there is no extra line of Tangents), of operating with Tangents of Angles above 45°, is as follows: Set the complement of the given angle over the 1 on the extreme left of the line A of the lower stock, and under 45° on the line TAN. will be found on A, the Nat. Tangent required. If the Nat. Tan. given is above 1.00, and its angle required, the operation is reversed.

Example. What is the Nat. Tan. of 80° 50'? (Its complement being 9° 10').

TAN 9° 10' = compl. of given angle
$$45^{\circ}$$
A 1 6.20 Ans.

Example. What is the angle corresponding to a Nat. Tan. of 1.68?

By this method, we can deal with angles even above 84° 18′, (which is the limit of the extra line referred to in page 3, though in practice, Tangents above 84° are not required), as follows:

Example. What is the Nat. Tan. of 88° 50'?

There is still another method of operating with Tangents of angles above 45°, which if there is no extra line of Tangents on the back of Slide, may be useful, when several have to be taken out together. It is as follows: Take out the Slide; turn it upside down, and shut it in with the line TAN. inverted, under the line A of the upper stock; then over the complements of the given angles, are their Natural Tangents. The 1 on the extreme left of the line A is then 100; that in the middle is 10.00; that at the extreme right is 100.

COTANGENTS.

THESE are taken out as the Tangents of the complements of the given angles. Thus the Cotangent of 48° is the same as the Tangent of 42°, namely '900. The angle corresponding to a Cotangent 2·3 times the Radius, is obtained by first finding the Tangent, namely 66° 30′,—the complement of which, or Cotangent required, is 23° 30′.

SECANTS.

SECANTS and Cosecants, though very useful in Logarithmic computation, are not required with the Slide Rule. If we have $x = \frac{\sin a \times \sin b}{\sin c}$, it is more convenient in Logarithms, to put it as $\sin a \times \sin b \times \cos c$; but two multipliers, and one divisor, are easier on the Slide Rule than three multipliers. See 5th Example in Appendix A; and $x = a \times \sec b$ by logarithms, is on the Slide Rule just as easy, in the form $x = \frac{a}{\cos b}$.

If we want, however, to take out Natural Secants, they may be found as the reciprocals of Cosines, because sec. $a=\frac{1}{\cos a}$. Take out the Slide and invert it, setting 90° of the line marked SIN. over the 1 on the extreme left of the line A on the lower stock. Then the numbers on the line A become a series of Secants of the complements of the angles over them. The 1 on the extreme left of the line A, is then 100; that in the middle is 1000; and that at the extreme right is 100.

Example. What is the Secant of 16°?

that is, the Secant of 16° is 1.04 times the Radius.

Example. What is the Secant of 72° 20'?

: NIS	90°	17° 40′ or compl. of given angle
A	1	3.29 Answer

COSECANTS.

THESE as shewn under the head of Secants, page 7, are not required in using the Slide Rule. They may, however, be found,—since cosec. $a=\frac{1}{sin.}a$,—by inverting the line marked SIN. and placing it even, over the lower line A. Then the numbers on the line A, become a series of Cosecants to the angles over them.

Example. What is the Cosecant of 21°?

:	NIB	90°	21°
	A	1	2·79 Answer

NAVIGATION.

THE Points, half-Points, &c. marked on the Compass card, are called Rhumbs.

- "A Rhumb line," is any line which crosses every Meridian at the same angle, and since the Meridians converge to the Poles, it follows that such a line, must be—except when it is actually along the Equator—more or less of a curve.
- "Sailing on a Rhumb," is the usual method of sailing from one place to another, on the same Compass point the whole way; whereas in what is called "Great Circle" Sailing, the Compass course

varies every instant. In sailing on a Rhumb, the actual distance (except when sailing due N. or S.,—or due E. or W. on the equator,) between two points, is from 1 to 4 per cent. greater than in Great Circle Sailing, but as this last is somewhat complicated, and seldom used by seamen, except in extreme cases, it will only be referred to in this work in APPENDIX D.

"The Nautical Mile," or "knot," is the "Geographical mile" of 6076 feet. The Equatorial diameter of the Earth is 7925.6 miles, and the Polar diameter 7899.2, or the Equatorial mile 6086.4 feet, and the Polar, or Latitude mile, 6066.1 feet; giving a mean of 6076.2 feet. By the Polar or Latitude mile, is meant the mean of the Latitude miles, for they slightly differ in extent, as will be observed under "Difference of Latitude." It is generally stated that the Nautical Mile is $\frac{1}{60}$ th of a Degree of Latitude in Lat. 45°, or $\frac{364540}{60}$ = 6075.7 feet, which is in fact the same as above. One " of arc, on the surface of the Earth, = 101.3 feet.

The following Formula is useful on the Slide Rule, when it is required to reduce one to the other:—

A	69·1	1.12	23	Statute miles
B	60	1	20	Nautical miles

"The Nautical distance," is the distance between two places, in Nautical miles, as measured on the Rhumb line. It is rather more than the distance by "Great Circle" Sailing (APPENDIX D), but it is what is meant by "Distance," in Log-books, Charts, &c.

"The Difference of Latitude," is the number of Nautical miles that one place is north or south of another. The nautical mile is, as before stated, 6076 feet, or $\frac{1}{60}$ of a degree of Latitude, in Lat. 45°, which is taken as a mean, but does not differ sensibly from $\frac{1}{60}$ of a degree in any Latitude. Strictly speaking, a mile of Latitude starting from the Equator, is 6046 feet, and in Lat. 60°, 6092 feet.

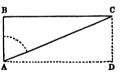
"The Difference of Longitude," is the number of minutes of Longitude between two places. On the Equator a minute or mile of Longitude, is 6086 feet, gradually diminishing towards the Poles, where there is no Longitude at all. It is evident, therefore, that to give the Diff. Long. between two places, is by no means giving

the distance, either in Nautical or Statute miles, that one is E. or W. of the other. To obtain this, a reduction is necessary, according to the Latitude of the place, as explained under "Parallel Sailing."

"The Departure" is the distance in Nautical miles (not in miles of Longitude) that one place is E. or W. of another.

"The Course" is always reckoned (in Degrees, or in Points) from the North or South, towards the East or West. A Table of Points, and Points with their corresponding Degrees, is given in APPENDIX F, among "Useful Tables," and also engraved on the Slide Rule.

Beginners are very apt to make a mistake, and to fancy that (for instance) because a N.N.E. course is a two point course, an E.N.E. course is a two point course also; whereas it is a six point course (counting from North). In drawing Diagrams, it should always be remembered, when the Diff. Lat. and Departure are given, to draw the Diff. Lat. first, as a perpendicular up or down, or Meridian line, and then the Departure, or horizontal line. If the Course and Distance are given, draw a Meridian line, and protract the angle from this, (from the top of it, if there is any Southing), and not from any



horizontal line. Thus, let a vessel from A, make 106 miles of Northing, and 256 of Easting or Departure; draw AB first, = 106, and then BC = 256, and join AC. Then the angle BAC $(67\frac{1}{2}^{\circ})$ is the Course. If the horizontal line AD had been drawn first, and then DC, the angle

of the Course would have been ACD, of the same value $(67\frac{1}{2}^{\circ})$ as before, but at the corner *opposite* that from which the vessel started, which is confusing.

N.B. 1st.—In all cases where the Departure is greater than the Diff. Lat. the Course will be large; i.e. above 45° or 4 Points.

N.B. 2d.—If the Departure is divided by the Diff. Lat., the quotient is the Natural Tangent of the Course. Thus in the above case $256 \div 106 = 2.415$, which is the Nat. Tan. of 67° 30′.

"The Log-line" varies in length according to the number of seconds that the Glass runs. The "Proportion" is as follows:

Sec. in 1 hour 3600 : Ft. in 1 Naut. mile 6076 :: Sec. in Glass : Ft. in Line.

And since 3600 and 6076 are constant, and 3600 + 6076 = 590, the number of feet in the Log-line always = Sec. in Glass + 590. For a half-minute Glass, this gives 506 feet; but to allow for the stretching that takes place, 50 feet is the usual measure for the Line when dry. The following Formulæ are useful for the Slide Rule:

(2)
$$\frac{A}{B}$$
 Seconds in Glass Feet run out Knots per hour, or Distance

Example. What number of feet should there be in a Line for a 28 s. Glass, a 30 s. Glass, and a 32 s. Glass?

(1)
$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{1}{6 \text{ (Divisor)}} = \frac{46.7 \text{ ft.}}{28} = \frac{50}{30} = \frac{53.38 \text{ ft.}}{32}$$

Example. A ship is reported as sailing 5 knots; but the line is 45 ft. and the Glass is found to run only 25 seconds; how many knots an hour is her real rate?

(2)
$$\frac{A}{B}$$
 25 seconds $5 \times 44 = 225$ ft. run out*

Example. If a vessel is recorded as having run 218 miles in a certain time, and both the Glass and the Line are faulty; the Glass being 31 sec. and the line 53 ft; what has been the real Distance run?

For definitions of "Plane Sailing"—"Parallel Sailing"—and "Mercator's Sailing," see under the different heads. For "Dip," "Distance of Horizon," "Refraction," "Sidereal Time," see APPRINCES B and F.

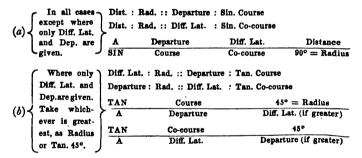
^{*} Multiplications are performed with lines A and B, as in APPENDIX A, • Ex. 1.

PLANE SAILING.*

THE Earth is considered to be a Plane, and all the Meridians parallel. This supposition, though incorrect, leads to no error as far as the Distance—Diff. Lat.—and Departure are concerned. The Diff. Long. is not an element in Plane Sailing, which is adapted only to small distances, such as, Bays, Channels, &c., but it is to be remembered that the other Sailings—after a slight correction is made, are resolved into Plane Sailing, which must be studied as the foundation of all.

All cases are solved by Right-angled Triangles; the hypothenuse being considered the *Distance*; the base or horizontal line the *Departure*; the perpendicular line the *Diff. Lat.*; and the angle opposite the Departure, the *Course*.

"Proportions" for Plane Sailing.



The learner should know how to alternate or reverse these Proportions; so if *Diff. Lat.* is required as the last term, Rad.: Dist.:: Sin. Co-course: Diff. Lat. If *Departure* is required, Rad.: Dist.:: Sin. Course: Dep. If *Distance* is required, Sin. Course: Departure:: Rad.: Dist.; or, Sin. Co-course: Diff. Lat.:: Radius:

^{*} Problems in Current and Windward Sailing,—Taking a Departure,—Shaping a Course,—Chasing, &c., are Plane Sailing, in so far that the surface of the Earth is considered a Plane; but because they are solved by oblique angled Triangles, they are generally classed (after Mercator's Sailing) as "Oblique Sailing."

Distance, &c. (The Slide Rule Formula above, shews these mutations well.)

The following is a synopsis of the only 7 Cases that can occur in "Plane Sailing," with the numbers of the *Examples* that illustrate them. The Formulæ in the last column, are simply the "proportions" reduced to the form of $d = \frac{b \times c}{a}$, in case it may be wished to work with Natural Sines and Tangents as in the N.B. to Ex. 1, where a=1.

Cases under (a), page 10.

	(.), F9					
Ex.	GIVEN	REQUIRED				
1.	Course Distance	Departure Diff. Lat.	= Distance × Sin. Course = Distance × Sin. Co-course			
2.	Course Departure	Diff. Lat.	= \frac{\text{Dep.} \times \text{Sin. Co-course}}{\text{Sin. Course}} = \text{Dep.} \div \text{Sin. Course}			
3.	Course Diff. Lat.	Departure. Distance.	$= \frac{\text{Diff. Lat.} \times \text{Sin. Course}}{\text{Sin. Co-course}}$ $= \text{Diff. Lat.} \div \text{Sin. Co-course}$			
4.	Distance Departure	Course Diff. Lat.	Sin. Course = Dep. ÷ Dist. = Distance × Sin. Co-course			
5.	Distance Diff. Lat.	Course Departure	Sin. Co-course = Diff. Lat. ÷ Dist. = Distance × Sin. Course			

Cases under (b), page 10.

6.	Diff. Lat.) (greater)) Departure		Tan. Course = Dep Diff. Lat.
7.	Departure (greater) Diff. Lat.	Course Distance	$Distance \begin{cases} = Dep. \div Sin. Course \\ = Diff. Lat. \div Sin. Co-course \end{cases}$

In the following Diagrams, BC is always the "Departure," and the angle A opposite to it, is the "Course." AB is "Diff. Lat." AC the "Distance."

Ex. 1.—A ship from Lat. 52° 6′ N. sails N.W. b W. 229 miles. Required her present Latitude, and Departure made good.*

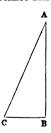


Then Lat. 52° 6' N. $+ 2^{\circ}$ 7' $= 54^{\circ}$ 13' N. Lat. come to; and Departure 190.4 miles.

N.B. 1st.—Using Nat. Sines (col. 4 in previous Table), we have $229 \times .556 = 127$ Diff. Lat. and $229 \times .8315 = 190.4$ Departure.

N.B. 2d.—If the course is 45°, the Diff. Lat. and Departure are equal.

Ex. 2.—A ship from Lat. 51° 15' N. sails SS.W. till she has made 250 miles of Departure. Required her present Latitude, and Distance sailed.



Then Lat. 51° 15' — 10° 4' = 41° 11' N. Lat. come to ; and 653 miles Distance.

^{*} It will be observed how speedily the Slide Rule, in the first 5 of these Examples, i. e. in all cases under (a), page 10, solves both proportions at one setting of the Slide. The Slide Rule will generally read the Course to within 10' (which is more than the usual Tables will do), and the Diff. Lat., Dep., and Distance, to a mile, if the number is not above 300. Compare this with the method by "Gunter's Scale" as given in Norie, &c. See pages 16 and 24.

DEX. 3.—A ship sails N.E. b. E. from Lat. 42° 25′ N. till by observation, she is in Lat. 46° 20′ N. Required the Distance run, and Departure made good.

A	285 = A B	352 = BC	423 = AC
SIN	33° 45′ = C	56° 15′ = A	909



N.B.—This problem suits "Heights and Distances," when the angle C is taken, and considered the *Co-course*, and CB measured as the Departure or Base. The Height BA is the "Diff. Lat."

Ex. 4.—A ship from Lat. 54° N. sails 350 miles between North and East, and finds she has made 220 miles of Departure. Required her Course, and Latitude in.

A	220 = B C	272 = AB	850 = AC
SIN	$39^{\circ} = A$	51° = C	90°

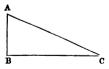
Then $54^{\circ} + 4^{\circ} 32' = 58^{\circ} 32'$ N. the Latitude in ; and Course N. 39° E.



• Ex. 5.—A ship from Lat. 56° 30′ N. sails between South and East 257 miles, till she arrives in Lat. 54° 47′ (or 103 miles of Southing). Required her Course, and Departure made good.

Here Dist.: Rad.:: Diff. Lat.: Sin. Co-course
And Rad.: Dist.:: Sin. Co-course: Dep.

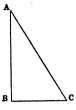
A	103 =	A:	В	235 = BC	257 = AC
SIN	23° 38′	=	C	66° 22′ = A	90°



The Course is therefore S. 66° 22' E. and Departure 235 miles.

N.B.—Using Nat. Sines (col. 4 Table page 11) $103 \div 257 = \cdot 401$ = Sine of Co-course C.

Ex. 6.—A ship sailed in 24 hours, 164 miles of Southing, and 134 of Easting. Required her Course and Distance.



First find, by (b), page 10, the smaller angle, which since the *Diff. Lat.* is greatest, is the Course; and then find the Hyp. or Distance by (a), page 10.

$$\begin{cases} First. & AB : Tan 45^{\circ} :: BC : Tan A \\ \frac{TAN}{A} & \frac{39^{\circ} 15' = Course}{134 = BC} & \frac{45^{\circ}}{164 = AB} \end{cases}$$

Second. Sin. A : B C :: Radius : A C.

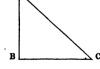
A
$$134 = BC$$
 $212 = Dist.$

SIN $39^{\circ} 15' = A$ 90°

The Course therefore is S. 391 E. and the Distance 212 miles.

265 miles Diff. Lat. and 390 miles Departure.

Required her Course, and Distance.



First find by (b), page 10, the smaller angle, which as the *Departure is the greatest*, is the Cocourse. Secondly, find the Hyp. or Distance from the Co-course and Diff. Lat. by (a), p. 10.

$$\begin{cases} Second. & Sin. C: AB :: Radius : AC \\ A & 265 = AB \\ \hline SIN & 34° 15' = C & 90° \end{cases}$$

Then since C the Co-course = $34\frac{1}{4}$, A the Course = S, $55\frac{3}{4}$ ° W.; and Distance 471 miles.

N.B. 1st.—If the Instrument has the extra line of Tangents, it may be better in all cases, where only the 2 legs are given, to assume Diff. Lat. whether greater or shorter than Departure, as Radius; in which case when it is the shorter, we get the Course, instead of the Co-course, at the first operation. In this case the back of the slide must be used for the 1st, and the front for the 2d operation, as follows:

First.
 TAN

$$45^{\circ}$$
 Course

 A
 Diff. Lat.
 Departure

 Second.
 A
 Departure

 SIN
 Course
 90°

 Thus in Ex. 7,
 1st. $\frac{TAN}{A}$ $\frac{45^{\circ}}{265}$ $\frac{50^{\circ} 45' = Course}{390 = Dep}$

 2d. $\frac{A}{SIN}$ $\frac{390 = Dep}{55^{\circ} 45' = Course}$ $\frac{471 = Dist}{900}$

N.B. 2d.—In using the line of TAN. in such Examples as 6 and 7, the Tangential angle, when less than 5° 33' (half a Point is 5° 37½') cannot be found, if one Leg is less than 10, without shifting the Slide. Thus if the Diff. Lat. is 103 and the Departure 9, when we place 103 on A under 45° on TAN. we cannot read what is over 9 on A. We therefore look for two coinciding figures on TAN. and A, or in the above instance, 29° over 5.8, and then shift the Slide to the right, till we get 29° over the 5.8 of the second Radius, when we can read 5° the answer on TAN. over 9 on A.

N.B. 3d.—When the course does not happen to fall on a whole Degree, or on a Point, ½ Point, or ¼ Point, the Slide Rule gives more correct results than the *Tables* in Navigation Books. In other cases the result is seldom in error above a mile in any day's run that a Steamer will make, or in long distances, say 1 in 300.

N.B. 4th.—If both the given Legs are of the same length, the Course will be an angle of 45°.

Footnote to page 12.

The method of solving Example 1 by "Gunter's Scale" would be described as follows, in Norie:

Extend the compasses from 8 Points (or 90°) on the line marked Sin. Rhumb. to 5 Points (the Course). That extent will measure back from 229 the Distance, on the line of Numbers, to 190.

Extend the compasses from 8 Points (90°) on the line s. B. to 3 Points (the complement of the Course). That extent will measure back from 229 the Distance, on the line of NUMBERS to 127. (As the Course is *large*, this 127 will be the Diff. Lat., and the 190 first found, the Departure).

It can easily be imagined that this method is longer and less accurate than that by the Slide Rule. It is difficult to measure exactly with the compasses, on board ship, and the lines marked on the Rule soon wear out. See also, p. 24.

TRAVERSE SAILING

is "Plane Sailing" applied to the case where a vessel from contrary winds, or other causes, makes a zig-zag track called a Traverse. Traverse Sailing is the method by which all these zig-zags are combined into one Course and Distance, exactly as in Examples 1, 6, and 7.

The following entry will exemplify:

Courses.	Dist.	N.	s.	E.	w.
w.s.w.	51		19.5		47·1
W. b. N.	35	6 ·8			34.3
S. b. E.	45		44·1	8.8	
S.W. b. W.	55		30.6		45.7
S.S.E.	41		37.9	15.7	
	-	·	132·1	24·5	127·1
			 6 ·8		24.5
			125.3		102.6
			Southing		Westing

The Courses must be reduced to Degrees, which is done from the figures engraved on the Slide Rule which shew the Degrees and minutes corresponding to every † Point.

The first two columns are what are shewn by the Log-slate. The Distance on each Course is then set on the line A, over 90° on sin.; and the Departure is found over the Course, and the Diff. Lat. over the Co-course, as in the Formula attached to (a), page 10; and thus the N. S. E. W. columns are filled up, the Slide Rule superseding a "Traverse Table." Then the difference between the sum of the Northings, and the sum of the Southings, becomes a "Diff. Lat." and the difference between the sum of the Eastings, and the sum of the Westings, becomes a "Departure"; whence the total Course and Distance is found, as in Ex. 6, or Ex. 7.

For instance, we have first, W.S.W. or 2 Points; or 22° 30′, 51 miles; then as in Ex. 1,

A 19.5 = Diff. Lat.
$$47.1 = Dep$$
. $51 = Dist$.
SIN $22^{\circ} 30' = Co-course$ $67^{\circ} 30' = Course$ 90°

and so on with each of the rest. Eventually, we have a *total* Diff. Lat. = 1321, and a *total* Departure = 1026, whence we get the total Course and Distance, as in Ex. 6.

Firstly.
$$\frac{\text{TAN}}{\text{A}} = \frac{39^{\circ} \, 19' = \text{Course}}{102^{\circ}6} = \frac{125^{\circ}3}{\text{Dep}}.$$
 $\frac{125^{\circ}3}{\text{Secondly}} = \frac{162 = \text{Dist.}}{162 = \text{Dist.}}$ Secondly. $\frac{\text{A}}{\text{SIN}} = \frac{102^{\circ}6}{39^{\circ} \, 19'} = \frac{162}{\text{Course}}$ $\frac{162}{90^{\circ}}$

Or a Total of S. 39° 19' W. 162 miles.

N.B. 1st.—Had the total *Departure* been greater than the total Diff. Lat. we should have worked as in Ex. 7.

N.B. 2d.—Since 102.6, and 125.3, are not easy places to find exactly on the Slide Rule, it would probably read a total Course of 39° 30′, with a Distance of 162 miles as before. This is quite as near as the usual "Traverse Tables" will give.

N.B. 3d.—The above are supposed to be *Compass* Courses. Had the variation been 2 Points Westerly, the total *true* Course would have been S. 16° 49′ W. and the Distance 162 miles as before. (The two legs being 155 and 47.)

PARALLEL SAILING.

The Meridians of longitude converge to the Poles; the distance between any two, decreasing according to the Cosine of the Latitude. "Parallel Sailing" is nothing more than the reduction of miles of Longitude to nautical miles, (or else nautical miles to miles of Longitude,) according to the Latitude of the place. For instance, the Cosine of 60° is half the Radius; if then the Hour Meridians on a Globe are 1.6 inches apart, in Lat. 60° they will only be '8 inch apart. One Degree of Longitude on the Equator is 60 Nautical miles; but in the Lat. of London $51\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, the Degree of Longitude is only $60 \times .622$ or 37.3 nautical miles, or using the Formula in p. 7, this is equivalent to 43 statute miles; so that a person travelling 43 statute miles due West from London would have altered his Longitude by 1° , and would find his watch too fast, by 4 minutes.

This reduction of miles of Longitude to nautical miles or "Departure," is required *constantly* at sea. Remember then that Departure = Diff. Long. × Cos. Latitude, and Diff. Long. = Departure ÷ Cos. Latitude; or on the Slide Rule,

A	Departure	Diff. Longitude
SIN	Co-latitude	90°

N.B.—In using the line of SINES, when we want the *complement* of an angle, it is generally easier to *count back* the given angle from 90°, than to deduct it mentally from 90°.

Ex. 8.—A vessel in Lat. 53° 9′, ran 190'4 nautical miles due West, (or 190'4 of "Departure"). How many miles of *Longitude* is this equivalent to?

A 1904 Departure
$$317.5 = Diff. Long.$$

SIN $36^{\circ} 51' = Co-latitude 90^{\circ}$

Ex. 9.—In Lat. 32°30′, a vessel made 159′ of Longitude. What "Departure" in nautical miles, is this equivalent to?

Ex. 10.—An Indiaman off the Cape, running due East, in Lat. 39° S. made 6° of Longitude (i.e. found her clock 24 m. too slow) in 24 hours. How many nautical miles had she run?

Ex. 11.—Plymouth
$$\begin{cases}
50^{\circ} 25' \text{ N. Lat.} \\
4^{\circ} 10' \text{ W. Long.}
\end{cases}$$
London 51° 30' N. Lat.

Dublin
$$\begin{cases}
53^{\circ} 23' \text{ N. Lat.} \\
6^{\circ} 14' \text{ W. Long.}
\end{cases}$$
What number of nautical miles go to one degree of Longitude, at each of these places? also, what number of Statute miles?

First,

	Departures	33.6	85.4	37·3	38.2	60'= Diff. Long.
SIN	Co-latitudes	34° 2′ = E	36° 37′ =	D $38^{\circ}30' = L$	39° 55' = P	900

Secondly,

A	69·1	38.7	40.8	43.0	44.0 Statute miles
B	60	33.6	35.4	37:3	38.2

or, knowing, that 60 Nautical = 69.1 Statute (p. 7), we can obtain the second set of answers as follows:

A Statute miles 38·7 40·8 43·0 44·0 69·1/ Diff. Long.

SIN Co-latitudes 34·9 2′ = E 36° 37′ = D 38° 30′ = L 39° 55′ = P 90°

MIDDLE LATITUDE SAILING.

"Plane Sailing," in which the Easting or Westing is given in nautical miles, is suited to small distances, as in Bays, Channels, &c.; but out at sea, where the distances are greater, the Easting or Westing is in miles of Longitude. These must be reduced, as shown by "Parallel Sailing," (p. 13), to nautical miles, or "Departure," and this one correction made, the rest is done by "Plane Sailing." In "Parallel Sailing" the two places are supposed to be on the same parallel of Latitude, but, if they are not so, the mean of the two Latitudes* is taken as the Parallel, whence to deduce the Departure, which thus becomes = Diff. Long. × Cosine of the middle Latitude, or if the Diff. Long. is required, it is = Departure ÷ Cos. mid. Lat.

The following are the "Proportions," in "Middle Latitude" Sailing:—

Radius : Cos. Mid. Lat. :: Diff. Long. : Departure.
Diff. Lat. : Cos. Mid. Lat. :: Diff. Long. : Tan. Course.
Sin. Course : Diff. Long. :: Cos. Mid. Lat. : Distance.

And as in "Plane Sailing,"

Diff. Lat. : Radius :: Departure : Tan. Course. Sin. Course : Departure :: Radius : Distance. Cosin. Course : Diff. Lat. :: Radius : Distance.

N.B.—When the two Latitudes are on different sides of the Equator, there is some little difficulty in taking out the Mid. Lat. exactly; but in these cases the want of exactness is of no practical consequence. If the 2 latitudes are nearly equal, half the greater may be employed as the Middle Latitude. Thus from 29° S. to 30° N. use 15°. In intermediate cases, the two *mid* Latitudes may be combined, giving the greater weight to that which corresponds to the greater Latitude. Thus 30° N. to 14° S.; allow twice the weight to the N. Lat. and we have $\frac{(2 \times 15^{\circ}) + 7^{\circ}}{3} = 12^{\circ}$ nearly. If from 0° 25′ S. to

2° 37′ N.
$$\frac{(3 \times 1^{\circ} 18') + 12'}{4} = \frac{4^{\circ} 24' + 12'}{4} = 1^{\circ} 8'$$
. If from 9° 30′ N. to 2° 44′ S. $= \frac{(4 \times 4\frac{3}{4}) + 1^{\circ} 22'}{5} = \frac{19^{\circ} + 1' 22''}{5} 4^{\circ} 5'$.

^{*} See the "Table," page 25, and the Note following it. These corrections need not be noticed, as far as any practical results are concerned.

GIVEN.

REQUIRED.

- I. One Latitude,—Course,—and Distance. Diff. Lat.—and Longitude.
- Ex. 12.—A ship from Lat. 52° 6′ N. and Long. 35° 6′ W. sails N.W. b. W. 229 miles. Required her present Latitude and Longitude.*

The Diff. Lat. A B = 127, and Departure B C = 190.4, are found exactly as in Ex. 1 "Plane Sailing." This 2° 27' of Lat. $+52^{\circ}$ 6', gives 54° 13' N. the *Latitude come to*; hence the "Middle Lat." is 53° 9'; and in this Parallel, 190.4 miles of Departure = 317.5' of Longitude, as shewn in Ex. 8. This 5° 17' added to 35° 6', makes 40° 23' W. the *Longitude come to*.

N.B.—In working with logarithms, or by Nat. Sines and Tangents, we can find the Diff. Long. without first finding the Departure; for Diff. Long. = $\frac{\text{Diff. Lat.} \times \text{Tan. Course}}{\text{Sin. Co. Mid. Lat.}}$; or in the above Example 12, $\frac{127 \times 1.5}{.600} = 317'$ of Long.

GIVEN.

REQUIRED.

- II. One Latitude,—Course,—Departure. Dist.—Diff. Lat.—Diff. Long.
- Ex. 13.—A ship sails S.S.W. from Lat. 51° 15′ N. and Long. 9° 50′ W. until her Departure is 250 miles. Required the Distance sailed, and her present Latitude and Longitude.†

The Diff. Lat. AB = 604, and Distance AC = 653 are found exactly as in Ex. 2" Plane Sailing." Then the 10° 4' of Lat. deducted from 51° 15', gives 41° 11' N. the Lat. come to; and 46° 13', the Middle Latitude. In this Parallel (as in Ex. 8) 250 miles of Departure = 361' of Long. This 6° 1' added to 9° 50', gives 15° 51' W. the Longitude come to.

work, to shew the advantage of the latter. See pages 16 and 24.

† This, and Problem IV. are not likely to occur at sea; for except when steering due East or West, the Diff. Long. is more likely to be known than the Departure.

^{*} Nearly all these Middle Latitude examples, are taken from "Norie's Epitome." The "Gunter's Scale" solutions that Norie and other works give, is quite obsolete; but they may be compared with the Slide Rule work to shew the advantage of the latter. See pages 16 and 24.

GIVEN.

REQUIRED.

III. Both Latitudes,—and Course.

Departure, - Dist. - Diff. Long.

Ex. 14.—A ship from Lat. 42° 25' N. and Long. 15° 6' W. sails N.E. b. E. and on the second day finds by observation that she is in Lat. 46° 20' N. Required the Distance she has sailed, and her present Longitude.

Here we have given, the Diff. Lat. = 3° 55', and the Middle Lat. = 44° 22'. Hence the *Distance* AC = 423 is found as in Ex. 3 "Plane Sailing"; as also the Departure BC = 352 miles, which in Mid. Lat. 44° 22', are reduced to miles of Longitude (as in Ex. 8) as follows:

A 352 = Departure 492' = Diff. Long.SIN $45^{\circ} 38' = Co-mid. Lat.$ 90°

This 8° 12' deducted from 15° 6', gives 6° 54' W. the Longitude come to. If the Course is a four point one, the Distance = Diff. Lat. × 1.414. Or, Distance always = Diff. Lat. ÷ Sin. Co-course.

GIVEN.

REQUIRED.

IV. One Lat.—Dist.—Departure.

Course,—Diff. Lat.—Diff. Long.

Ex. 15.—A ship from Lat. 54° N. and Long. 33° 20′ W. sails 350 miles between N. and E. until she has made 220 miles of Departure.* Required her Course, and her present Latitude and Longitude.

By "Plane Sailing" Ex. 4, we find the Course A = N. 39° E. and the Diff. Lat. AB = 272 miles, which gives $54^{\circ} + 4^{\circ} 32' = 58^{\circ} 32'$ N. the Latitude come to; and 56° 16' the Middle Lat. In this parallel, (as in Ex. 8), 220 miles of Departure = 396' of Longitude, which gives $33^{\circ} 20' - 6^{\circ} 36' = 26^{\circ} 44'$ W. the Longitude come to.

GIVEN.

REQUIRED.

V. Both Latitudes,—and Distance.

Course,—and Diff. Long.

Ex. 16.—Suppose a ship from Lat. 56° 30′ N. has sailed in the S.E. quadrant 257 miles, till she arrived in Lat. 54° 47′ N. Required her Course, and Difference of Longitude.

^{*} See footnote to Problem II.

By "Plane Sailing" Ex. 5, we find the Course $A = S. 66^{\circ} 22' E$. and the Departure BC = 235 miles; which since the Middle Latitude is known from the data given, to be 55° 38', is converted to miles of Longitude as in Ex. 8 as follows:

GIVEN.

REQUIRED.

VI. (a) Both Latitudes—Both Longitudes.

Course,—and Distance.

Ex. 17. (Place) April 22, 31° 8' S. Lat. 29° 50' W. Long. (Course & Ship,) April 23, 33° 52' S. Lat. 27° 11' W. Long. (Dist.)

The Diff. Lat. being 164 miles, the Middle Lat. is 32° 30'; and (as in Ex. 9) in the parallel, the 2° 39' Diff. Long. is reduced to 134 of Departure,* as follows:—

We then proceed by "Plane Sailing," as in Ex. 6, where, of the two given legs, the Diff. Lat. is greatest, and obtain the Course = S. 391° E. Distance 212 miles.

GIVEN.

REQUIRED.

VI. (b) Both Latitudes—Both Longitudes.

Course,—and Distance.

Ex. 18. (Cape St. Vincent 37° 3' N. Lat. 9° 1' W. Long.) (Course & Dist.)

The Diff. Lat. is 265 miles, and Mid. Lat. = 34° 50′. In this parallel, (as in Ex. 9) the 7° 55′ Diff. Long. is reduced to 390 miles Departure, as follows.*

^{*} In working by logarithms, or Nat. Sines and Tangents, we can find the Course, without first finding the Departure; for Tan. Course = $\frac{\text{Diff. Long.} \times \text{Sin. Co-mid. Lat.}}{\text{Diff. Lat.}} = \frac{\text{So in Ex. 17}}{164} = \cdot 817$ which is the Nat. Tan. of 89° 15′. Dep. \div Diff. Lat. also gives Tan. Course. See N.B. page 21.

A	390 = Departure	475' = Diff. Long.
SIN	55° 10′ = Co-mid. Lat.	90

We then proceed by "Plane Sailing," as in Ex. 7, where of the two given Legs, the Departure is the greatest, and obtain the *Course* S. 553° W. Distance 471 miles.

N.B.—If we prefer to use the Diff. Lat. as radius, even when Departure is the greatest, (as explained in N.B. 1st, page 15,) we get the Course instead of the Co-course, in the first part of the operation.

Gunter's Scale.

To show the working on "Gunter's Scale," the method, as given in Norie, for Ex. 18, is as follows:—

Extend the compasses from 90° to 55° 10′ (which is the complement of the Mid. Lat.) on the line sin. That extent will reach on the line of NUMBERS, from 475 (the diff. Long.) to 390, the Departure.

Extend from 265 (diff. Lat.) to 390 (departure) on the line of NUMBERS: that extent will reach on the line TAN. from 45° to 55° 48′ the Course.

Extend from 34½° (the compl. of course) to 90° on the line sin: that extent will reach from 265 (diff. lat) on the line of NUMBERS, to 471 the *Distance*.

This may be *tried* with a pair of compasses on the lines A TAN, and SIN of the Slide Rule, or on figure 2 of the plate. It will soon be seen that the process is inaccurate, tedious, and destructive of the instrument. But when the *Slide* Rule is used, none of these defects exist, and the answers are quicker taken out than from the "Tables" generally used.

CORRECTION IN ' TO BE ADDED TO MEAN LATITUDE.

MID	DIFFERENCE OF LATITUDE.													MID.						
LAT.	2	ŝ	°4	ŝ	ů	°	8	ş	10	ů	1°2	13 ——	14 ——	15	16	17	18 —	1°9	20 	I.AT.
16	í	2 2	3 3	5	4	9	12 10	15 15	19 18	28 21	27 25	81 29	35 33	40 88	46 45	52 50	58 56	65 62	7 ₂	15 16
16 17	i	2	3	4	6	8	10	14	17	20	24	28	82	37	48	48	54	60	66	17
18	1	1	3	4	6	8	10	18	16	19	28	27	81	36	41	46	52	58	64	18
19	1	1	8	4	6	77	10	13 12	18	18 18	22 22	26 25	30 29	85 84	39	44	50 48	56 54	62 60	19 20
20 21	Ιî	lî	2	4	5	7	ا ا	12	15	18	21	25	29	33	37	42	47	52	58	21
22	1	1	2	4	5	7	9	12	14	17	21	24	28	32	36	41	46	51	56	22
23	1	1	2 2	3	5	77	9	11	14	17 17	20	23 23	27 27	31 31	85 85	40 39	45	50	55	23 24
24 25	i	i	2	3	5	7	9	11	14	16	20 19	23	27	31	85	39	44	49	54 53	24 25
26	ī	1	2	3	5	6	9	11	13	16	19	23	26	30	84	38	42	47	58	26
27	1	1	2	3	5	6	9	11	13	15	18	22	25	29	33	87	42	47	52	27
28 29	l	1	2 2	3	5	6	9	11	13 13	15 15	18 18	21 21	25 25	29 29	38 32	37 36	41	46 46	51 50	28 29
80	lî	ī	2	8	5	6	9	ii	18	15	18	21	24	28	82	36	40	45	50	80
81	1	1	2	8	5	6	9	11	13	15	18	21	24	28	82	36	40	45	50	81
32	1	1	2 2	8	4	6	9	11 11	12 12	15 15	18 18	21 21	24 24	28 28	32 32	36 36	40	45 45	50 50	32 33
83 84	li	li:	2	3	4	6	9	11	12	15	18	21	24	28	32 32	36	40	44	49	33 34
85	1	1	2	3	4	6	9	11	12	15	18	21	24	28	32	36	40	44	49	85
36	1	1	2 2	8	4	6	9	11	12	15	18	21	24	28	82	36	40	45	49	36
37 38	1	1	2	8	4	6	9	11	12 12	15 15	18 18	21 21	24 24	28 28	32 32	36 36	40	45 45	49 50	37 38
89	1	î	2	3	4	6	9	ii	12	15	18	21	24	29	32	36	40	45	50	89
40	1	1	2	8	4	6	9	11	18	16	18	21	25	29	88	87	41	45	50	40
41	1	1	2 2	3	4	6	9	10	13 13	16 16	18	21 21	25 25	29	33 33	87 87	41	46	51 52	41 42
42 43	li	lî	2	3	5	6	8	10	13	16	19	22	26	30	34	38	41	46	58	48
44	1	1	2	3	5	6	8	11	18	16	19	22	26	30	84	88	42	47	58	44
45	1	1	2	3	5	6	8	11	13	16	19	22	26	80	84	38	48	48	58	45
46 47	1	1	2 2	3	5	6	8	11	13 13	16 16	19	22 23	26 26	80	84 85	39 40	44	49 50	54 55	46 47
48	ī	ī	2	4	5	7	9	ii.	13	16	19	28	26	30	35	40	45	50	55	48
49	1	1	2	4	5	7	9	11	13	16	20	23	27	81	86	41	46	51	56	49
50 51	1	1	2 2	4	5	7	9	11 11	14 14	17 17	20 20	24 24	28 29	32 32	36 36	41 41	46 47	51 52	57 58	50 51
51 52	i	i	2	4	5	7	9	ii	14	18	21	25	30	33	36	42	48	58	59	52
58	1	1	2	4	5	7	9	12	15	18	21	25	80	88	87	48	49	54	60	58
54	1	1	2	4	6	8	10 10	13 18	15 16	18 18	22 22	26 26	30 31	34 35	38 39	44	50 51	56 57	63	54 55
55 56	li	i	8	4	6	8	10	18	16	18	28	27	31	36	40	46	52	58	65	56
57	1	1	8	4	6	8	10	13	17	19	28	27	82	87	41	47	58	59	67	57
58	1	1	8	4	6	8	11	14	17	20	24	28	88	38	43	48	54	61	68	58
59 60	1	2	8	4	6	9	11 11	14 14	17 18	20 21	24 25	29 30	84 85	89 40	45 46	50 52	56 58	63 65	70 72	59 6 0
	2	. 8	* 4	ŝ	å	- ĉ	8	ŝ	 10	ů		13	14	1°5	ı°.	1 ⁷	18	19	20 20	

The above Table is computed from the Formula

"Cos. true Mid. Lat. = Proper diff, Lat. + Mer. diff. Lat."

The Meridional diff. Lat. is described under "Mercator's Sailing," p. 28; and the Formula given above, is thus derived:

By Mid. Lat, Sailing (p. 20) Tan. Course = $\frac{\text{Cos. Mid. Lat.}}{\text{Diff. Lat.}} \times \text{Diff. Long.}$

By Mercator's Sailing (p. 29) Tan. Course $=\frac{\text{Radius}}{\text{Mer. diff. Lat.}} \times \text{Diff. Long.}$

whence $\frac{\text{Cos. Mid. Lat.}}{\text{Diff. Lat.}} = \frac{\text{Radius}}{\text{Mer. diff. Lat.}}$

or Cos. Mid. Lat. = $\frac{\text{Radius}}{\text{Mer. diff. Lat.}} \times \text{Diff. Lat.} = \frac{\text{Diff. Lat.}}{\text{Mer. diff. Lat.}}$

N.B.—In computing the preceding Table. Meridional Parts to decimals have been used. In most Navigation books, these parts are not given to decimals, and have a certain amount of error. For example. Norie in his Examples of Mercator's Sailing, asks the Course and Distance from the Cape of Good Hope in Lat. 34° 22' S.: Long. 18° 24' E. to St. Helena in Lat. 15° 55' S. Long. 5° 45' W. He makes it by Mercator's Sailing N. 49° 40' W. 1710 miles; and adds in a note, that with the corrected Middle Latitude 25° 50', the answer would be the same by Mid. Lat. Sailing. 'This makes his "correction" = 25° 50' minus 25° 8' 30' (which last is the Mid. Lat. in the ordinary way) = 41° 30'; whereas by the Table in page 25, for Mid. Lat. 25° 81', and Diff. Lat. 18° 27', the correction would be about 45', instead of 411. The larger amount is correct, for that assumed by Norie is calculated from Tables of Meridional Parts, not to decimal places, and therefore agrees with his Mercator's Sailing results which are derived from the same Tables, giving 2198 — 968 = Mer. Diff. Lat. 1230. The Tables to decimals give 2198.07 — 967.52 = Mer. Diff. Lat. 1230.55; the odd $\frac{1}{2}$ mile causing $3\frac{1}{2}$ difference in the "corrected" Middle Latitude. The Distance between the two places is not sensibly affected. By ordinary Mid. Lat. Sailing, it is N. 49° 50′ 17″ W. 1716·4 miles; by common Mercator N. 49° 40′ 24″ W. 1710.6 miles; by True Mercator, and corrected Mid. Lat. it is N. 49° 39′ 39″ W. 1710·1 miles. See Case 2 in the list, page 27.

In the following List, the Difference of Latitude, and the Difference of Longitude are given, and the correct Course and Distance of the

3d and 4th columns worked out logarithmically by "Mercator's Sailing," with the Meridional parts to decimals. The Course and Distance in the columns 6 and 7, is worked out logarithmically by "Middle Latitude Sailing," without the correction in page 25. The "Middle Latitude" in col. 5, is the uncorrected mean of the two latitudes, to which the correction in col. 8 is to be added, and the results in cols. 3 and 4 will be obtained.

It will be seen that the "ordinary" Mid. Lat. is too small, consequently the Departure is too great, and its opposite angle, or Course, too great; which makes the Distance too great.

		MERC	ATOB.	MIDD			
Diff. Lat.	Diff. Long.	Course.	Dist	Usual Mid. Lat.	Course.	Dist.	Cor- rection
898	1319	55 393	1592	°4 5	55 41	1593	412
1107	1449	49 39	1710-1	25 83	49 50	1716-4	45
858	786	83 7	1024-4	44 9	33 19 1	1026-8	263
745	1295	51 103	1188-5	44 0	51 202	1192.8	20
644	1237	54 24	1106.3	43 6	54 30	1109-3	17
480	965-5	45 00	678-8	60 0	45 91	680-8	12
282	428	40 27	370-6	55 46	40 29	370.8	31
204	155	34 0 1	246-1	27 22	34 0 1	246.2	11
240	1067	69 21	671.0	54 0	69 3 <u>1</u>	671.5	2
60	474	78 4 13	307.4	50 30	Same as M	[ercator.	0

In the 1st Example, the Latitudes are 9° 30′ N. and 2° 44′ S.; and the Mid. Lat. is found to be nearly 4° 5′, as in page 20. Though this is nearly 47′ in error, no appreciable difference in the Course and Distance results, because the Mid. Lat. is so near the Equator.

The Latitudes of each Example are easily found, if required, from col. 5. Thus in the 3d case, half of 858' added to 44° 9' gives 51° 18' one Latitude; and half of 858' subtracted from 44° 9' gives 37° 0' the other Latitude.

MERCATOR'S SAILING.

In "Mercator's Sailing," a Table of "meridional parts," (see N.B. page 30) is indispensable, and it is therefore not so well adapted to the Slide Rule, as "Middle Latitude Sailing," which when the Slide Rule is used, requires no Table at all. Again, though Mercator's Sailing is theoretically correct, yet it is not more so than Middle Latitude Sailing when the correction in the Table (page 25) is applied. Even without this correction, the error is not one which can possibly affect a ship, as will be seen from the List in page 27. However, as Mercator's Sailing forms part of a course of instruction in Navigation, it may be as well to explain it.

In "Middle Latitude" sailing, the error of "Plane" sailing, arising from considering the Meridians parallel, is compensated by decreasing the Longitudes (into Departures); whilst in "Mercator's" Sailing, it is compensated by increasing the Latitudes in a certain proportion; and Charts can be constructed on this principle. The coasts, islands, &c. in high latitudes, are exaggerated, but the bearings between any two places are correct, and the distances can be measured correctly from a scale. Hence, when any large surface of the earth has to be represented on a Map, Mercator's charts are employed.

The following is the proportion in which the latitudes are increased: suppose 1' (or 1 mile) on the Equator to be a radius, the length of the first minute of latitude will be the secant of 1' to that radius; the second minute of latitude will be the secant of 2'; and the third minute of latitude will be the secant of 3'; and so on for each separate minute of Latitude. Consequently, the distance from the Equator to any parallel of latitude, is equal to the sum of the secants of the intermediate minutes. Hence, the parallel of 10°, for instance, is made 603 instead of 600 miles from the Equator; and that of 20°, is made 1225 miles, instead of 1200. These lengths are called "Meridional Parts," and are given in works on Navigation to every minute of latitude. The difference between the Meridional Parts appertaining to any two latitudes, is the "Meridional Difference of Latitude." Thus the "Mer. Diff. Lat." between 10° and 20°, is 1225 minus 603 = 622 miles; between

59° 30′ and 60° 30′ it is 4588 minus 4468 = 120 miles; or just double the length of one degree on the Equator.

Proportions in Mercator's Sailing:-

Mer. diff. Lat.: Diff. Long.:: Radius : Tan Course Mer. diff. Lat.: Diff. Long.:: Diff. Lat.: Departure.

The Distance, and Diff. Lat. are found as in Plane Sailing (p. 10). The Departure may also be found by Plane Sailing, when the Course and Distance, or Course and Diff. Lat. are known.

The Slide Rule may be employed after the "Mer. diff. Lat" has been obtained from the Table of Meridional Parts; and in fact it will be more correct than the subsequent Tables generally used, unless the Course happens to be exactly one which fits the Tables (See N.B. 3d, page 15).

Example. Required (as in No. 5 of the List in page 27,) the Course and Distance from Ushant to St. Michael's.

Ushant 48° 28' N. Lat. 5° 3' W. Long. Diff. Lat. = 644 miles, St. Michael's 37° 44' N. Lat. 25° 39' W. Long. Diff. Long. 1237'. Mid. Lat. 43° 6'.

 $48^{\circ} 28' \text{ Mer. Parts} = 3334$ $37^{\circ} 44' \text{ Mer. Parts} = 2448$

886 = Meridional difference of Latitude.

First. Mer. diff. Lat. : Radius :: Diff. Long. : Tan. Course.

Secondly. (Plane Sailing). Sin. Co-course : Diff. Lat. :: Radius : Distance.

A 644 = Diff. Lat. 1106 = Dist. 8IN
$$35^{\circ} 37' = \text{Co-course}$$
 90°

The Slide Rule would probably give S. $54\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ W. 1110 miles; and the same by "Middle Latitude" Sailing, with, or without, the correction of 17 from page 25.

No other Example need be given; but it is to be observed that where the Course is above 6 points, and the usual Traverse Tables

are used, "Middle Latitude" Sailing is to be preferred; for the Course may not be exactly one for which the ordinary Tables are computed.

The following case occurred at sea, Dec. 22, 1847:-

Ship's place 30° 50' S. Lat. 17° 24' W. Long. Cape of Good Hope 34° 22' S. Lat. 18° 29' E. Long.

The Course and Distance being required, the following answers were given:—

- 1. By "Mercator" and Tables.... S. 83° E. 1740 miles.
- 2. By "Mid. Lat." and Tables S. 83° E. 1780 miles.
- By Mid. Lat. uncorrected, and Slide Rule S. 83° 20' E. 1830 miles.
- True, by Logarithms, and Tables to decimal parts S. 83° 19½ E. 1824 miles.

N.B.—The "Meridional Parts" for any Latitude may be found by the following Rule, where Logarithmic Tables are at hand. Let $t = \log$ tan. of $(45^{\circ} + \frac{1}{4} \text{ Lat.})$. Then $(\log t + \text{constant log.} 3.8984895) — <math>10.0 = \text{Log.}$ of the Meridional Parts for that Latitude.

Given Latitude 50°. Then $t = 70^\circ$, whose log. tan. is 0.4389341.

Log. of 0.4389341 = 9.6423994 Const. log. = 3.8984895 13.5408889 - 10.0000000 3.5408889 = 3474.47 = "Meridional Parts" for 50°.

Again: required the "Meridional Parts" for Latitude 15° 55′. Here $t = 7^{\circ}$ 57½′ + 45° = 52° 57½′, whose Log. Tangent is 0·1222286.

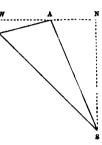
Log. of 0·1222286 = 9·0871730 Const. Log. = 3·8984895 12·9856625 — 10·0000000 2·9856625 = 967·53

CURRENT SAILING.

Apparent Course and Distance given, and also the Current; to find the true Course and Distance made good.

Ex. 19.—If a ship sail N.N.W. 60 miles, in a current setting W. by S. 25 miles in the same time, what will be the Course and Distance made good?

In the figure, we have the two sides SA = 60, and AC = 25, given, and also the included angle SAC = 9 Points; but instead of the solution as an "oblique triangle," * it is more simple to consider each side SA and AC as an Hypothenuse



of a right-angled triangle,—obtain the Diff. Lat. and Departure of each, and combine them as in Traverse Sailing, p. 16. So in the above figure, SA the apparent Course is resolved into SN its Northing, and NA its Westing. The Current AC is resolved into AW its Westing, and WC its Southing. The similars are added, and the dissimilars subtracted, and from this combination, the Course and Distance made good are found as in Traverse Sailing, p. 16.

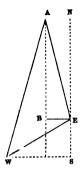
To find the Course,

To find the Distance.

A	47.5 =	Departure	69·5 = Distance 8 C
SIN	$43\frac{1}{4} =$	Course	90°

^{*} In the separate volume of "Trigonometry by the Slide Rule," the method of solving oblique-angled triangles is given.

Apparent Course and Distance, and true Course and Distance given; to find the Set and Drift.



Ex. 20.—A ship A by her reckoning, has sailed S. b. E. 42 miles; but by observation, finds she has made a S. b. W. Course 58 miles. Required the Current.

In the figure, we have the 2 sides AE, AW, = 42 and 58, and the included angle at A = 2 Points given; but instead of the solution as an "oblique-"angled triangle,* it is simpler to work it as a reversed Traverse; i.e. when the two sides have been resolved into Southings, Westings, &c. similars are subtracted, and dissimilars added. Thus in the right-angled triangle

ESW of the figure, the difference ES between the supposed and true Southings, is one Leg, and the sum SW of the supposed Easting and true Westing, is the other Leg; whence the Course or set of the current is SEW, and the Distance or drift is EW; as in page 17.

	N.	S.	E.	W.	
S. b. E. 11	<u>∤</u> ° 42	41.2	8.2		
S. b. W. 11	<u>1</u> ° 58	56.9		11:3	
		15.7		11.3	
				8.2	
•				19.5	
To find the Course or	Set,†				
TAN 39° = Co-	course			45°	
A $15.7 = 1$	Diff. Lat.		•	19.5 = Dep.	
To find the Distance	or Drift,				
A $15.7 = I$	Diff. Lat.			25° = Dist.	
$8in 39^{\circ} = C$	o-course			90°	

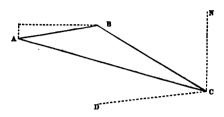
^{*} See footnote, p. 31.

+ Or with the extra line of Tangents, (N.B. p. 15),

TAN	45°	51° = Course
A	15.7	19:5

True Course, and rate of sailing, with Current and its rate given; to find the "apparent" Course, or Course to be steered.

The bearing of A, the port to which a vessel at C is bound, is W.N.W. but the tide is setting W. ½ S. 4 miles an hour, in the direction C D. What course must the vessel steer, if her rate is 8 knots an hour?



Here we have given the angle BAC = \angle ACD, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ Points; and the side BC = 8 miles. Then by the Rule which applies both to Right-angled and Oblique triangles, viz. that the sides are in proportion to the Sines of the angles opposite them, we have BC: Sin. BAC:: AB: Sin. BCA; and BCA deducted from NCA (a W.N.W. bearing), leaves NCB the Course to be steered.

A
$$4 = AB$$
 $8 = BC$
SIN 13° 59′ = BCA 28° 7′ = BAC

Then 67° 30′ (or W.N.W.) minus $13^{\circ} 39' = N.53^{\circ} 51'$ W. the Course to be steered.

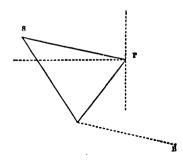
N.B.—The more complicated cases, which seldom occur, are better solved by a Diagram, with protractor and Plane Scale.

WINDWARD SAILING

Is the resolution of an Oblique-angled triangle, in which one side, and all three angles are given; and it is required to find the other two sides.

N.B.—It will save trouble to remember that the angle made by tacking (which in the diagrams will be lettered S) is always, whatever the length of the boards made, equal to the complement of the sums of the angles made between the ship's course and the wind, on the two tacks. Thus if a vessel makes good a 6 Point course on both tacks, the sum is 12 Points, and the complement of this, 4 Points or 45° is the angle made in tacking, or S. So if the vessel makes 6 Points good on one tack and 51 on the other, the angle S is equal to $16 - 11\frac{1}{2}$ Points, or 5 Points, or $56\frac{1}{2}$ °. (The angles corresponding to every Quarter Point are engraved on the Slide Rule.) Hence one angle S, or that opposite the side joining the ship's place at starting, and the Port, is always known; as also the angle denoting the Points from the wind: whence the 3d angle is known. The "Proportion" is Sin. of any angle: opposite side:: Sin. of another angle: its opposite side. Or.

A	Given distance	Distance sailed on that tack
SIN	Angle S	Angle opposite any board



Ex. 21.—A ship at D is bound to a Port P, 26 miles dead to windward, the wind being N.E.; and it is intended to fetch the Port in two boards, the first being on the starboard tack. The ship can make good a 6 Point course on each tack; i.e. she could lay up either DS. or DB.

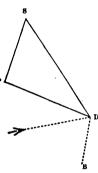
Here S = complement of 12 Points; i.e. 4 Points, or 45°.

Required the number of miles she must sail on the starboard tack DS. (The same of course on the other tack.)

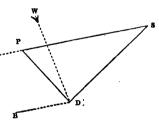
A
$$26 = DP$$
 $34 = DS$
SIN $45^{\circ} = \angle S$ $67^{\circ} 30' = \angle P$

N.B.—It will easily be seen that \angle SPD = PDB which is 6 Points, or 67° 50′; or since SD and SP are equal, the angles P and D are each equal $\frac{180^{\circ}-S}{2}$.

Ex. 22.—Suppose the wind at W. b. S., and P. the Port, bearing W. N. W., 20 miles. The Ship at D can make good a N. W. b. N. course towards S, on the port tack, or S. b. W. towards B, on the starboard tack. How many miles must be sailed on each tack, to reach P in two boards? (It does not matter which tack is taken first, but let it be the port one.) Here S = 16 - 12 = 4 Points, and the angle SDP = 6 - 3 or 3 Points; and SPD or PDB = 9 Points or $78\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$. See page 2.



N. N. W., and the ship at D, I wanted to reach in two boards, the mouth of a river at P, which bore N. W. ½N. 10 miles. The ship laid 5½ points from the wind, with ½ a point leeway, and an extra point leeway on the starboard tack,



owing to the tide. Required the Course and Distance on each tack; (the ship can make good either WDS = 6 points, or WDB = 7 Points.)

A
$$10 = D P$$
 $13.9 = D S$ $17.9 = S P$
SIN $33^{\circ}45' = S$ $50^{\circ}37\frac{1}{2}' = \angle P$ $84^{\circ}22\frac{1}{2}' = \angle D$

 \angle D is $8\frac{1}{2}$ Points, but Sin 95° $37\frac{1}{2}$ ′ = Sin 84° $22\frac{1}{2}$ ′. See page 2.

It is easily seen that the angle DPS = PDB, or 6 — $1\frac{1}{2}$ Points = $4\frac{1}{4}$ Points.

N.B.—Whatever the number of boards a ship makes, the sum of the distances on each tack, will be equal to the sum of the two distances, had the place been fetched in two boards.

Ex. 24.—To make a degree of latitude a day, against a due N. or S. wind, the ship making good, including leeway, $6\frac{1}{2}$ points, at what rate per hour must she sail? (First find the miles on each tack, as in Ex. 21.) Here \angle S = 16 — 13 or 3 Points, and the \angle P = $6\frac{1}{2}$ Points.

Then 206 is the whole distance sailed, and $\frac{206}{24} = 8.6$ knots an hour.

N.B.—Since it is an isosceles triangle, and \angle S the included angle, each of the other angles must be = $\frac{180^{\circ} - \angle S}{2} = \angle P$.

Ex. 25.—If a ship averages 6 knots an hour, and, including leeway, makes good only a 7 Point course, how far will she work to windward in 24 hours? (This is the reverse of the preceding Example) $6 \times 12 = 72$ miles on each tack.

A
$$_{28 \text{ miles}}$$
 72 on each tack.
SIN $_{22}^{\circ} _{30}^{\prime} = S$ 78° 45′ = P

Ex. 26.—Supposing two vessels A and B, to start together from D; A sailing 6 points, and B 7 points off the wind. How much faster must B sail than A, ever to come up with her?

In the figure, DS'P is the course of A, and DSP that of B. A puts about at S', the moment B tacks at S, for it is evident that if she stood on towards C, she would be sooner come up to. DS' or PS' may be considered as the

unit, or 1.0, and what we want to know is, the proportion that DS bears to it. First we find PD, and then we get a known side opposite a known angle S, whence we get DS.

Now the angle at S', as shewn in the N.B. page 34, is equal to the complement of double the angle the ship makes with the wind, or 16 Points minus 12 Points, or 45°; and in the same way the angle at S is 2 Points, or 22° 30′.

First, Sin. PD S' (or 6 p.) : PS' (or 1) :: Sin. S' (or 45°) : PD.

A
$$^{765 = PD}$$
 $1 = PS'$
BIN $45^{\circ} = S'$ $67^{\circ} 30' = \angle PDS'$

Secondly, as in Ex. 21, we find the miles in each tack DS, and SP.

A
$$.765 = PD$$
 $1.96 = PS$
SIN $22^{\circ} 30' = S$ $78^{\circ} 45' = PDS$

Therefore B must sail 1.96 times as fast as A, or 10 knots to her 5.1, and will come up to her in twice the time that it takes B to sail from D to S; but B can put about as soon as he pleases, and thus make the time indefinitely short.

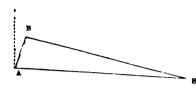
N.B.—If DS' is always considered the unit, or 1.0, the following are the values of PD for the *first* part of the operation.

Ship from the Wind.	Value of P D.	Ship from the Wind.	Value of P D.	The a
5 Points. 51 ,, 51 ,, 52 ,, 6 ,,	1·1 1·03 943 ·855 ·765	61 Points. 61 ,, 61 ,, 7 ,,	674 581 •486 •390	always of the wifaster v

The angle PDS is always equal $\frac{180^{\circ} - S}{2}$. It is the angle from the wind that the faster vessel sails.

Ex. 27.—With the wind at N. two vessels in company are bound directly to windward, but do not tack. One makes a 6 point course, the other a 7 point course. The first sails 7 knots an hour. How many knots must the other sail to attain the same Northing in the same time?

Answer. The case is just the same as if they were chasing and did tack. By Ex. 26, the less weatherly vessel must sail 1.96 knots to the other's 1, or 13.7 per hour.



Ex. 28.—A vessel at A, steering E. ½ S., sights another vessel B, bearing N. N. E. 10 miles off, steering 1 point higher, or E. b. S. ½ S. They meet at S. Which has been sailing the fastest?

Here $\angle A = 6\frac{1}{2}$ p. $\angle B 8\frac{3}{4}$ p. whence $\angle S = 1$ point, or 11° 15′.

A 10 BS = 49 51 = AS
SIN
$$11^{\circ} 15'$$
 $67^{\circ} 30'$ = A $84^{\circ} 23'$ = B

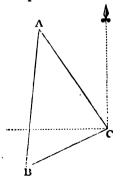
whence the vessel at A has been sailing the fastest.

N.B.—Here, instead of using 95° 37′ for the angle at B, we use its supplement 84° 23′. (See p. 2.)

TAKING DEPARTURES BY CROSS BEARINGS.

These cases are generally solved more easily by "construction," than by calculation with Logarithms; but the Slide Rule has advantages over "construction;" for a simple sketch, not necessarily drawn to scale, is all that is required; and it gives results as near, for all practical purposes, as Logarithms; and very much quicker, and no "Tables" required.

N.B.—When two bearings of a place are taken from two different stations, the angle at the place observed, is the difference between the two reversed compass bearings, as shown in the following Example:



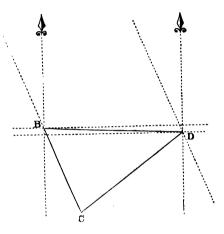
Ex. 29.—Sailing down Channel at C, I observed the Eddystone at A, bearing N. W. b. N.; and continuing a W. S. W. course, I observed when at B, after running 18 miles, that it bore N. b. E. Bequired its distance from C, and from A. Reverse the Bearings; then the difference between S. E. b. S. and S. b. W. is 4 Points, or 45° for the angle A, opposite the given side BC = 18. It is also evident that the angle ACB is 5 + 2 or 7 Points; whence B = 5 Points. Then by the "proportion" in p. 34,

A
$$18 = CB$$
 $21 \cdot 2 = AC$ $25 - AB$
SIN $45^{\circ} = /A$ $56^{\circ} 15' = /B$ $78^{\circ} 45' = /C$

It is not at all necessary to draw the diagrams to scale, but some rough sketch should always be made.

Ex. 30. — Being close in with Dungeness at D, I sailed 27 miles in the S. W. quadrant, as far as C, and then found Beachy Head bear by compass N. N. W. Now Beachy Head bears by compass from Dungeness W. 1 N. 29 miles. quired the distance from the last station C, to Beachy Head, and the course (by compass) made good.

Reverse the Bearings; then the difference be-



tween E. ½ S., and S. S. E. is 5½ Points, = angle B; and we have the 2 sides DB and DC given as 29 and 27. First we find the angle C, and without moving the Slide, take out BC opposite the angle D. (The angles corresponding to the Points are engraved on the Rule.)

After angle C is found, angle D is of course 180° — (C + B).

Now the bearing of B from D, is W. 2° 49′ N., and this subtracted from D, gives the angle $ADC = 36^{\circ} 21'$; the complement of which, or the angle from the meridian, is the Course S. 53° 39′ W.

N.B.—If the course thus made, differs from that steered by compass, the difference is owing to a Current, or to "local attraction;" but not to "variation," unless the true bearings had been worked throughout.

EX. 31.—The ship's course was N. 60 E. Passing a lighthouse at 1 P.M. it bore N. 15° W. and at 4 P.M. N. 50° W.; the ship having run 18 miles. Required the distance from the last Station.

USEFUL FORMULÆ. (See p. 6, Appendix A.)

I.	A	1.15	23	Statute miles
1.	B	1	20	Nautical miles
	A	1	27	French "brasses"
IJ.	B	·888	24	English "fathoms"
III.	. <u>A</u>	1 4·7		Statute miles
	В	4.7		Seconds of sound
	C	1	42	Height in fact / 30 \
IV.	7	1.064	6:9'	Height in feet $\left(\frac{30}{350'}\right)$
	ט	1 004	09	17the Dip. in \350
٧.	C D	1	33	$\frac{\text{Height in feet}}{Apparent \text{ Dip. in }'} \left(\frac{40}{370''}\right)$
٧.	D	·975	5.6′	Apparent Dip. in ' \(\frac{370"}{}
	~	v		Fig. 1 - 1 1 1
VI.	5	5 3 [2·61]		Feet above level
	D	3 [2.61]		Stat. miles [Nautical]
3717	A	Angle in '		Subtense in feet
VII.	A B	1145		Dist. in yards
		Angle in /		Subtense in feet
VIII.	A B	Angle in '		
	В	·651 [·566]		Dist. in Stat. miles [Nautical]
īv	A	6 Hours	1	55 Minutes Sid. to Solar Time
IX.	$\overline{\mathbf{B}}$	59 Minutes	ij	9 Seconds

Arc into Time.

Multiply by 4. This turns degrees of Arc into minutes of Time; minutes into seconds; and seconds into 60ths

Example:

Time into Arc.

Reduce all to minutes and seconds; and any decimals of seconds into 60^{ths}. Then divide by 4.

Example:

2h. 24m. 46.4s. = 144min. $46\frac{2}{6}$ s. Divide by 4 = 36° 11′ 36″

Application of the above Formulæ.

- 1. The report of a cannon is heard 20 seconds after the flash is seen. By Formula III. the distance is 4½ Statute miles.
- 2. At the height of 127 feet above the sea, the *true* dip is, by Formula IV., 12', and by Formula V. the *apparent* dip (which is what is used at sea) is 11'.
- 3. The eye being 22 feet above the sea, I can just see the light of a lighthouse, on the horizon; and this light I know to be 125 feet above the water. By Formula VI., we have 5 47 Nautical miles as the distance if the light were on the water; and 13 05 the distance of the sea horizon as seen from the light; making a total distance of 18 52 Nautical miles.
- 4. If a man 6 feet high, subtends an angle of 6.9', his distance by Formula VII. is 1,000 yards; and a foot-rule at the distance of one mile will subtend .651', or 39".
- 5. By Formula IX., if 2h. 21m. Sidereal time is given, we deduct 23 seconds, to obtain 2h. 20m. 37s. Mean Solar Time.
- N.B.—To find the *true* distance from a mountain, whose height is known, and its angle observed, and its *estimated* distance given, see APPENDIX B.

SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY.

QUESTIONS relating to "Amplitude"—"Time of sunrise or sunset"—"Prime Vertical"—&c., which are of constant occurrence at sea, are easily and quickly solved by the Slide Rule, without requiring any Tables. (The figure in Appendix G, shows the Right-angled triangle, in which DA = Amplitude,—DN = Ascensional difference,—AN = Declination; and ADN = Colatitude.)

AMPLITUDE.

This is to find the variation of the compass. (APPENDIX E.) If the observed amplitude is to the *right* of the true, the variation is Westerly, and vice versă.

The bearing of the sun must be taken when its lower limb is a semidiameter above the horizon. The sun's centre is then really on the horizon; but it appears higher, owing to refraction, which is about 32 or a sun's breadth.

The Amplitude is reckened from the E. or W. points, towards the N. or S.; towards the N. if the Declination is N., and vice verzá.

Formula. Sin. Ampl. =
$$\frac{\text{Sin. Decl.}}{\text{Sin. Co-lat.}}$$

Ex. 32.—Required the true amplitude of the Sun's centre, in Lat. 48° 21' N., when the Declination is 16° S.

Without moving the Trigonometrical Slide, read off the Nat. sines of 16° the Decl., and of 41° 39′ the Co latitude = '276 and '665.* Then on the Arithmetical slide $\frac{A}{B}$, solve $\frac{\cdot276}{\cdot665}$ = '415; which '415 is shown by line SIN. to be 24° 30′. The sun therefore rises E. 24° 30′ S., or sets W. 24° 30′ S.

[•] In most instances, the extra line of Sines on the back of the Slide, mentioned in page 3, may read nearer than the other.

Or we may use the "proportion" Sin. Co-lat.: Rad.:: Sin. Decl.: Ampl.

and 415 = Nat. sine of 24° 30' as before.

If the Compass bearing at Sunset was W. 28° S., the variation is 3° 30' Easterly.

Ex. 33.—In Lat. 26° 32′ N. and Decl. 0° 43′ S., required the Amplitude. Nat. sine 63° 28′ or Co-latitude = '895, and of 0° 43′ = 0125. Then with the Slide $\frac{A}{B}$, $\frac{\cdot 0125}{\cdot 895}$ = '0140; which on the line am gives 0° 48′, or W. 0° 48′ S. the *true* amplitude.

Or, using the "proportion" Sin. Co-lat.: Rad :: Sin. Decl. : Ampl.

and $\cdot 0140 = 0^{\circ} 48'$ as before.

ASCENSIONAL DIFFERENCE

Is the time between 6 o'clock apparent Time (or in the case of a star, 6h. from its transit over the Meridian) and the moment of Rising or Setting. The Sun is to be observed when its lower limb is a semi-diameter above the horizon, as in the case of Amplitude, p. 42.

When Lat. and Decl. are of the same name, the Asc. diff. is to be added to the time of Setting, and subtracted for Rising. If of different names, subtract from 6h. for Setting, and add for Rising.

The time of Sunrise or Sunset thus found, is the Apparent Time, and requires the correction of "Equation of Time" to reduce it to Mean time.

. Formula. Sin. Asc. diff. = Tan. Lat. × Tan. Decl.

Ex. 34.—In Lat. 31° 10′ N. and Decl. 11° 14′ S. required the Sun's Ascensional difference.

Without moving the Trigonometrical Slide, take out the Nat. Tangents of 31° 10′ and 11° 14′, = 605 and 199. Multiply these on the Slide $\frac{A}{B}$, and find 1203, which on the Trigonometrical Slide is found to be the Nat. Sine of 6° 54′. Turn this into *Time* as in page 41, and obtain 27m. 36 sec. Then Lat. and Decl. being of different names, this amount is to be added to 6 o'clock Apparent time for Sunrise, and deducted for Sunset.

Or if we use the "proportion" Rad.: Tan. Lat.:: Tan. Decl.: Asc. diff. find the Nat. Tan. of the Latitude '605 as before; then

$$\begin{cases} A & 605 \text{ Tan. Lat.} \\ \hline \text{SIN} & 6^{\circ} 54' = \text{Asc. diff. in Arc.} \\ \hline \text{TAN} & 10^{\circ} 14' = \text{Decl.} \\ \hline A & 1 \end{cases}$$

Ex. 35.—Required the Sun's Asc. diff. in Lat. 51° 31' N. when the Declination is 20° N.

The line of TAN gives the Nat. Tangents of 51° 31′ * and 20°, = 1.26 and 364. These multiplied on the Slide $\frac{A}{B}$ give 458, which on line SIN is found to be the Nat. Sine of 27° 15′. This reduced to line as in p. 41, gives 1h. 49m. to be subtracted from 6h. for Sunrise, or added for Sunset, because Lat. and Decl. are both North.

Or using the "proportion" Rad.: Tan. Lat.:: Tan. Decl.: Asc. diff.

$$\begin{cases} \underline{\mathbf{A}} & 1.26 = \text{Nat. Tan. Lat.} \\ \underline{\mathbf{SIN}} & \underline{\mathbf{27}^{\circ} \ 15' = \text{Asc. diff. in Arc.}} \\ \underline{\mathbf{TAN}} & \underline{\mathbf{20}^{\circ}} = \mathbf{Decl.} \\ \underline{\mathbf{1}} & 1 \end{cases}$$

Ex. 36.—In Lat. 14° S., August 11th, required the time of the rising of a Centauri, whose i)ecl. is 60° 12′ S.; its transit over the

^{*} If there is no extra line of Tangents on the back of the Slide, the Nat. Tan. of 51° 30′ must be found as shewn in page 4.

Meridian * being at 5h. 4m. Apparent time, which makes its "6 hour circle" 11h. 4m. App. time. As Lat. and Decl. are of the same name, the Asc. diff. for Rising, is to be subtracted from this 11h. 4m.

Without moving the Trigonometrical Slide, find the Tangents of 60° 12' + and 14° = 1.75 and .249. Then by the Slide $\frac{A}{B}$ 1.75 \times .249 = .435, which on the line of SIN is shewn to be the Nat. Sine of 25° 48'. This reduced to *time*, as in page 41, gives 1h. 43m. which deducted from 11h. 4m. gives 9h. 21m. P.M. as the time of rising, *i.e.* when the star seems 33' or a Sun's breadth, above the horizon, For *Mean* time, apply the Equation.

N.B.—If the Declination of a heavenly body is greater than the Co-latitude of the place, and if δ and λ are of different names, it will never rise above the horizon. If the Declination of the heavenly body is greater than the Co-latitude of the place, and δ and λ of the same name, it will never set below the horizon.

PRIME VERTICAL.

The best time to take an altitude of a heavenly body, is when it bears due E. or due W. (i.e. on the Prime Vertical), unless it is very low down on the horizon, in which case the refraction is too great.

No heavenly body can come to the Prime Vertical, unless its Declination is less than the Latitude of the place, and of the same name. If it is on the Equinoctial, it is on the Prime Vertical at the time of its rising or setting, which in this case is 6 o'clock, Apparent time.

+ See footnote to previous page.

^{*} For such purposes as this, the App. Time of transit is found near enough, by subtracting the R. A. of the Sun at App. Noon, from the R. A. of the Star plus 24h., if necessary.

Altitude of Prime Vertical.

Ex. 37.—In Lat. 51° 30' N. and Decl. 23° N., required the true altitude of the Sun's centre, when on the Prime Vertical.

Without moving the Trigonometrical Slide, take out the Nat. Sines of 51° 30′ and 23°, viz. 783 and 391. Then with the Slide $\frac{A}{B}$, solve $\frac{.783}{.391} = .500$; which by referring again to the Trigonometrical Slide is found to be the Nat. Sine of 30°; *i.e.* the *true* altitude of the Sun's centre (by Logarithms 29° 57′). Its apparent altitude will be $1\frac{3}{4}$ ′ more, on account of refraction, and if the eye is 17 feet above the sea, its apparent altitude will be 4′ more, on account of Dip. See page 40, Formula V.

Using the "proportion" Sin. Lat.: Rad.:: Sin. Decl.: Sin. Alt.

A '783 Nat. Sin. Lat. 1

$$81N$$
 23° = Decl. $30^{\circ} = A1t$.

Time of passing Prime Vertical.

The time is, of course, Apparent time.

Formula. Cos. Hour angle = Tan. Decl. × Tan. Co-lat.

Ex. 38.—In Lat. 31° 28', S. and Decl. 14° 11' S. when does the Sun come to the Prime Vertical, in Apparent Time?

Without moving the Trigonometrical Slide, take out (as in p. 4) the Nat. Tangents of 58° 32′ (the Co-lat.), and 14° 11′, viz. 1·64 and 252. Multiply these on the Slide $\frac{A}{B}$, and obtain 413, which the Trigonometrical Slide shews to be the Sine of 24° 23′, or Cosine of 65° 37′, the Hour angle in arc. Reduce this to time as in page 41, and find 4h. 22m. 28s. (the correct answer is 4h. 22m. 26s) which would be the Apparent time P.M. (or 7h. 37m. 32s. A.M.) when the Sun is on the Prime Vertical.

Or using the "proportion" Rad.: Tan. Decl.:: Tan. Co-lat.: Co-sin. H; find the Nat. Tangent of the Co-lat. 1.26 as before; then

$$\begin{cases} \frac{A}{SIN} & \text{1.64 Nat. Sin. Co-lat.} \\ \frac{24^{\circ}23' \cos \text{ of Hour angle.}}{1} \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{1}{1} = \frac{1}{1} = \frac$$

If it is a star, we must apply the Hour angle to its Time of Transit. (See footnote, p. 45.)

AZIMUTH AND ALTITUDE AT VI. O'CLOCK.

The Azimuth is reckoned from the South in N. Lat.; or from the North in S. Lat. If the observed Azimuth is to the right of the true, the "variation of the compass" * is Westerly.

The "time" referred to is Apparent time; or in the case of a star, it is 6h. from the time of its meridian passage, found as in the footnote to page 45. The "altitude" is the true altitude of the Sun's centre.

For Azimuth. Co-tan. Az. = Sin. Co-lat. × Tan. Decl.

Ex. 39.—What is the Azimuth of the Sun's centre at 6 o'clock Apparent Time, in Lat. 51° 30' N. and Decl. 23° 28' N.?

Without moving the Trigonometrical Slide, take out the Nat. Sines of 38° 30′ (Co-lat.), and 23° 28′, viz. 622 and 434. Multiply these on the Slide $\frac{A}{B}$, and obtain 270, which the Trigonometrical Slide shews to be the Tan. of 15° 8′; giving S. 74° 52′ W. as the Azim.

For Altitude. Sin. Alt. = Sin. Lat. × Sin. Decl.

Ex. 40.—Required the altitude, at the same place and time as in the previous Example.

^{*} For the Azimuth at any other hour, see page 52. Refer also to APPENDIX E.

Without moving the Trigonometrical Slide, take out the Nat. Sines of 51° 30', and 23° 28' = '783 and '398. Their product is '312, which is the Nat. Sine of 18° 10', the *true* alt. of the Sun's centre. The *apparent* altitude is about $2\frac{1}{4}$ ' more for Refraction, and 4' more still, for Dip, if the eye is 17 feet above the sea.

LONGITUDE INTO RIGHT ASCENSION.

Formula. Tan. A. R. = Tan. Long. × 9167.

(Here 9167 = Cosine of 23° 27′ 43″ the Obliquity of the Ecliptic.)

Ex. 41.—Reduce 77° of Longitude to A. R.

Find, as in page 4, the Nat. Tan. of $77^{\circ} = 433$; and on the Slide $\frac{A}{B}$ multiply 433 by 917 = 3.97; the Nat. Tan. of which (as in p. 4) is 75° 52′. This reduced to *time*, as in p. 41, gives 5h. 3m. 38s. for A. R. The correct A. R. is 5h. 3m. 33s.

or	TAN	45°	77
Ų.	A	·917	3-97

or if there is no extra Slide

Ex. 42.—Reduce 266° of Longitude to A. R.

For 266° use its difference from 180°, i.e. 86°, as in page 2. Then $14.3 \times .917 = 13.1$ which is the Nat. Tan. of 85° 38′. Then 180° + 85° 38′ = 265° 38′, or in *time* (as in page 41) 17h. 42m. 32s. is the A. R.

TWILIGHT.

• On the general assumption, that it is not quite dark till the Sun is 18° below the horizon, it is Twilight all night when the Lat. plus the Decl. being of the same name, exceed 72°.

Twilight when shortest.

We have to find, at what *Declination* of the Sun, the twilight is shortest, and then refer to the Almanac for the day.

Formula. Sin. Decl. = Sin. Lat. \times 1583 (Nat. Tan. 9°).

Ex. 43.—In the Latitude of Madras, 13° 4' N. when will Twilight be shortest?

A ·158 1
$$\frac{1}{81N}$$
 2° 3′ = Decl. 13° 4′

Since the Lat. is N. the Decl. will be S.; and the Sun has 2° 3' South Declination, about March 15th and September 18th.

Hence on the Equator, the Twilight is shortest when the Sun has a Decl. of 9°, or about 13th April and 30th August.

Duration of shortest Twilight.

Formula. Sin.
$$\frac{\text{Duration}}{2} = \frac{\cdot 1564 \text{ (Sin. 9°)}}{\text{Sin. Co-lat.}}$$
.

Ex. 44.—What is the duration of the shortest Twilight, at Madras, in Lat. 13° 4′ N.

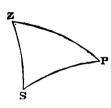
And the Line of SIN shews 161 to be the Nat. Sin. of 9° 15'; whence 18° 30' in arc, or (as by page 41) 1 h. 14 m. in time, is the answer.

Hence on the Equator, when the Sun's Declination is 9°, the arc of twilight is 18°, = 1 h. 12 m. the shortest possible Twilight anywhere.

N.B.—Though in theory, Twilight lasts till the Sun is 18° below the horizon, yet in general parlance it may be said to be dark when it is 10° below the horizon. In this case, in the above Examples, we should use 0875 (or the Nat. Tan. of 5°) in Ex. 43; and Sin. 5° instead of Sin. 9° in Ex. 44; giving 17th March and 26th Sept. (Decl. 1° 16' S.) for Ex. 43; and 5° 10' = 41 m. 20s. for Example 44.

OBLIQUE SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY.

TIME AND AZIMUTH.



THE figure represents the kind of oblique spherical triangle, the resolution of which is most frequently required at sea. (See APPENDIX G.) S is the place of the heavenly body observed. ZS is its Zenith distance, and P the Hour-angle opposite. PS is the Polar distance, and Z the angle of Azimuth opposite. ZP is the co-latitude of the place where the observation is taken.

In the following Formula, A is the angle sought, and a the side opposite to it. Also h = half the sum of the three sides a + b + c.

Sin.
$$\frac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\frac{\sin (h-b) \times \sin (h-c)}{\sin b \times \sin c}}$$
.

(I.) To find the "Hour-angle," and thence the time.

Ex. 45.—In Lat. 36° 30′ N. the true altitude of the sun's centre was 24° 00′, and the corrected Declination 13° 50′ N. Required the Hour-angle, and thence the apparent time from Noon.

$$a = \text{Zen. Dist. } 66^{\circ} \text{ 00'}$$
 $b = \text{Pol. Dist. } 76 \text{ 10 Nat. Sin. } 971$
 $c = \text{Co-Lat.} \quad 53 \text{ 30 Nat. Sin. } 804$

$$2)195 \text{ 40}$$

$$h = 97 \text{ 50}$$

h - b 21 40 Nat. Sin. 369 h - c 44 20 Nat. Sin. 699 All these are taken out from the extra line of Sines at the back of the Trigonometrical slide.

Then
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 A = $\sqrt{\frac{369 \times 699}{971 \times 804}}$; and 971×804 with Slide $\frac{A}{B} = 780$.

Then
$$\frac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\frac{369 \times 699}{781}} = \begin{cases} \frac{A}{B} & \frac{369}{781} \\ \frac{C}{D} & \frac{699}{574 = \frac{1}{2} A} \end{cases}$$

sin page v., APPENDIX A.

Then the line of SINES shews '574 = 35° = $\frac{1}{8}$ A; whence A = 70°, and this reduced to *Time*, as in p. 41, gives 4h. 40m. as the "Hourangle," or time from Apparent noon, either A.M. or P.M.

The exact value of $\frac{1}{2}$ A is 35° 5′ 43″, and the "Hour-angle" 4h. 40m. 46s. An error of 1′ in the angle $\frac{1}{2}$ A, produces an error of 2′ of Longitude or 8 seconds of Time. The present Example was worked out $\frac{1}{2}$ A = 35°, by the Slide Rule, and after a little experience it will generally give a result as near, or nearer.

Ex. 46.—In Lat. 18° 18' N. the true altitude of Procyon, west of the meridian, was 23° 54', its Decl. being 5° 34' N. What was the "Hour-angle," or time elapsed since its transit over the meridian?

$$a = Zen. Dist. 66^{\circ} 6'$$
 $b = Pol. Dist. 84 26 Nat. Sin. 995$
 $c = Co-Lat. 71 42 Nat. Sin. 950$

$$2)222 14$$

$$k = 111 7$$

$$k - b 26 41 Nat. Sin. 449$$

$$k - c 39 25 Nat. Sin. 635$$

All these are taken out from the extra line of Sines on the back of the Trigonometrical slide.

Then
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 A = $\sqrt{\frac{449 \times 635}{995 \times 950}}$. Multiply 995 × 950 by the slide $\frac{A}{B}$.

Then
$$\frac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\frac{\cdot 449 \times \cdot 635}{\cdot 945}} = \begin{cases} A & \cdot 449 \\ B & \cdot 945 \end{cases}$$

$$C & \cdot 635 \\ D & \cdot 550 = \frac{1}{2} A \end{cases}$$

Then the line of SINES shews $550 = 33^{\circ} 20' = \frac{1}{2} \text{ A}$; whence $A = 66^{\circ} 40'$, which reduced to *Time*, as in p. 41, gives 4h. 26m. 40s. the "Hour-angle." The above was worked by the Slide Rule alone, without any Tables. The *exact* value of $\frac{1}{2}$ A is 33° 19′ 11.5″, and the "Hour-angle" 4h. 26m. 33.5s.

If in the above Example, we had given, the Star's R. A. = 7h. 32m. 4s., and the Sun's R. A. = 19° 8' 47", we obtain the "Apparent Time" as follows:

The H.-angle plus the R. A. of the Star if west of the meridian, or minus if east, gives the "Right ascension of the meridian" (or what

would be the R. A. of a point on the Meridian of the place, at the time of observation); from this, increased by 24h. if necessary, subtract the Sun's R. A., and the remainder is the "Apparent Time." In this case it is 16h. 49m. 50s, or 4h. 49m. 50s. P.M.

N.B.—It is useful practice to work out a few cases such as those given below, with the Slide Rule, and compare with the result by logarithms; remembering that the final logarithm is "log. sine of (½ A)2." Instead of dividing this log. by 2 (i. e. extracting its Square Root), and obtaining ½ A, and then doubling to obtain A, and then reducing arc into time—the whole is done in Nautical works by a Table of "Log. sine square" (or XXXI. of Norie), which gives at once, the time corresponding to (½ A)2. Thus, in the preceding Example, the last log. given, is 19 479639, which is log. sine A2; but to compare with the Slide Rule work which gives Nat. Sin. ½ A, we divide 19 479639 by 2 (i. e. extract its Square Root), and get 9 7398195; and a Table of Logarithmic Sines shews this to be 33° 19' 11 5" or ½ A; the result by the Slide Rule being 33° 20', as shewn above.

Examples for exercise:

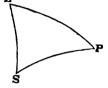
	•	,	"		,	"	•	,	"		,	"		,	~
Zen. Dist	53	9	00	43	18	00	68	20	00	41	17	00	63	31	00
Pol. Dist	70	6	00	70	37	00	74	41	00	107	58	00	104	28	00
Co-Lat	47	50	00	57	44	00	61	15	00	83	2	00	62	45	00
≟ A =	28	54	45	23	10	30	36	41	00	16	40	00	24	41	45
	•	,	,,		,	,,	•	,	"		,	_,,		,	,,
Zen. Dist	67	21	00	62	32	00	66	59	00	74	28	00	51	33	00
Pol. Dist	111	45	00	73	27	00	96	31	00	84	24	00	74	9	00
Co-Lat	54	5	00	52	47	00	46	30	00	39	14	00	55	13	00
} A =	18	23	10	33	58	00	24	41	38	36	6	30	26	55	30

(II.) To find the Azimuth.

The Azimuthal angle is reckoned from the North in N. Lat., and from the South in S. Lat.; but if it exceeds 90°, it is generally read as a Compass reading. If for instance, it is found S. 110° E., it is read as N. 70° E.

It may be observed at sea, with a prismatic compass and reflector, by standing with the back to the sun; the reading has of course to be reversed. Thus, if the reading is 250° , or S. 70° W., the Azimuth is N. 70° E. The vibration of the card need cause no difficulty; for take a = reading at one extreme, b at the other extreme, and c the next vibration near the first, and $\frac{a+2b+c}{4} =$ the mean reading. Thus, if the readings are 80° 40', -80° 22', -80° 36', the mean is 80° 30'. This is the *compass* bearing. See APPENDIX E.

The oblique spherical triangle is the same as that in page 50; but in this case, A the required angle, is opposite the side PS or the Polar distance, or a. The Formula is the same, viz.,



Sin.
$$\frac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\frac{\sin. (h-b) \times \sin. (h-c)}{\sin. b \times \sin. c}}$$

Ex. 47.—In Lat. 10° 35′ S., the Sun's declination being 23° 33′ N., and the *true* altitude of the Sun's centre 13° 28′, required the Azimuth.

$$a = \text{Pol. Dist.} = 113^{\circ} 23'$$
 $b = \text{Zen. Dist.} = 76 32 \text{ Nat. Sine } 973$
 $c = \text{Co-Lat.} = 79 25 \text{ Nat. Sine } 983$

$$2)269 20$$

$$b = 134 40$$

$$b - b = 58 8 \text{ Nat. Sine } 850$$

$$b - c = 55 15 \text{ Nat. Sine } 822$$

All these are taken out from the extra line of Sines at the back of the Trigonometrical Slide.

Then
$$\frac{1}{9}$$
 A = $\sqrt{\frac{.850 \times .822}{.973 \times .983}}$ = $\sqrt{\frac{.850 \times .822}{.955}}$ (for .973 × .983 by Slide $\frac{A}{B}$ = .955).

$$\begin{cases} \frac{A}{B} & \frac{.850}{.955} \\ \frac{C}{D} & \frac{.822}{.855 = \frac{1}{2} A} \end{cases}$$

Then on the Trigonometrical Slide, '855 = 58° $40' = \frac{1}{4}$ A; whence A = S. 117° 20′ E., or N. 62° 40′ E. the true Azimuth The correct value is N. 62° 38′ E.; and if the observed azimuth is N. 80° 30′ E., the "variation of the compass" * is 17° 52′ Westerly.

Ex. 48.—In Lat. 41° 53' N., the Sun's declination being 19° 50' and altitude of centre 44° 7'; required the true Azimuth.

$$a = \text{Pol. Dist.}$$
 70° 10′
 $b = \text{Zen. Dist.}$ 45° 53′ Nat. Sine 718
 $c = \text{Co-Lat.}$ 48° 7′ Nat. Sine 745
2) 164° 10′
 $h = 82^{\circ}$ 5′
 $h - b = 36^{\circ}$ 12′ Nat. Sine 591
 $h - c = 33^{\circ}$ 58′ Nat. Sine 559.
Then $h A = \sqrt{\frac{591 \times .559}{.559}}$ and 718 × 745 by S

Then
$$\frac{1}{2} A = \sqrt{\frac{.591 \times .559}{.718 \times .745}}$$
, and .718 × .745 by Slide $\frac{A}{B} = .534$.

Then
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 A = $\sqrt{\frac{\cdot 591 \times \cdot 559}{\cdot 534}} \begin{cases} \frac{A}{B} & \cdot 591 \\ \frac{C}{D} & \cdot 559 \end{cases}$

The Trigonometrical Slide shews '785 to be the Nat. Sine of 51° $45' = \frac{1}{2}$ A; whence A = N 103° 30′ W., or S. 76° 30′ W. The correct value is S. 76° 26′ W. and if the observed azimuth is 56° 15′ W. the "variation" of the Compass, is 20° 11′ Easterly.

Examples for exercise.

Polar Dist Zen. Dist Co-Lat	49	35	00	51	00 49	00	67 49	50	00 00 00	64	43 20	00 00 00	67 71	, 2 13 13	
₫ A =	55	10	30	5	39	30	55	35	27	46	40	7	38	12	4

^{*} For remarks relative to "Variation," see APPENDIX E.

RATE OF MOTION IN ALTITUDE.

The Rate in ' of Arc, is = Cos. Lat. \times Sin. Azimuth \times 15, in 1 minute of Time; a form easily solved by the Slide Rule.

I. On the Equator. On Prime Vertical.

Here the Co-latitude and the Azimuth = 90°, and their Sines 1 each; so that the rate at which the Sun or a Star rises or falls is 15′ of Arc, in 1m. of Time.

II. On the Equator. Not on Prime Vertical.

Here Co-latitude = 90° and its Sin. = 1; thus the Rate is Sin. Azim. \times 15; or with an Azimuth of N. 24° E the rate is $\cdot 407 \times 15$, or 6·1' in 1 minute of Time.

III. Not on the Equator. On Prime Vertical

Here Azim. = 90°, and its Sine = 1. Hence the Rate is Sin. Co-lat. \times 15. Thus in Lat. 34°, the Rate is $\cdot 829 \times 15$, or 12.4' in 1 minute of Time.

IV. Neither on the Equator, nor on the Prime Vertical.

Say Lat. 35°, Azimuth N. 80° E. The answer is Sin. 55° \times Sin. 80° \times 15; or $\frac{.819 \times .985}{.0667} = 12.1'$ of Arc, in 1 minute of Time.

N.B.—No heavenly body should be observed for "Time," when its rate of rising or falling is slower than 6' of Arc, in 1 minute of Time.

To find the Azimuth.

By reversing the above operation, we can find the Azimuth approximately, when the rate of motion in altitude is known. This may be sometimes useful, when in taking altitudes for Lunars or other purposes, the Azimuth observation has been omitted.

Example. In Lat. 15° 10′ S. a set of sights gave the Sun moving in altitude $11\cdot2'$ of Arc, in 1m. of Time, and the Moon $8\cdot7'$ of Arc in 1m. of Time. Here Sin. Azim. = $\frac{\text{No. of 1' in 1m}}{\text{Sin. Co-lat.} \times 15}$. The Slide Rule shews Sin. 74° 50′ = $\cdot969$, and this multiplied by 15 with the other Slide, shews $14\cdot5$ as the Divisor. Then the Slide set as follows, gives both answers:—

And the Trigonometrical Slide gives for '602 and '774, the Sines of Azimuths 37°, and 50° 45′.

SLIDING GUNTER.

The "Sliding Gunter" formerly used by seamen, has, on the Slide, a line of sines, and on the Stock, over (or sometimes under) it, a similar line of sines; with these two lines, the first and second operations of the Example given below, were worked. Over (sometimes under) the line of sines on the Stock, is engraved a line v.s. (Versed Sines), so arranged, that if any angle were selected on the line of Sines, as $= (\frac{1}{4} A)^2$, the angle over it on the line v.s. would be the complement of A. With these two lines, the third part of the operation in the Example below, is worked.

With reference to problems in Spherical Trigonometry, it will be observed from pages 51 and 52, that if we can once get ($\frac{1}{4}$ A), it will be convenient to be able to take out at once the angle A. This is done (in working by logarithms) by such Tables as XXXI. of Norie, or "Log. Sine Square" of Raper. The Sliding Gunter line v.s. does it also, but it gives the *complement* of A, instead of the angle itself.

Example. Take Ex. 46, page 51.

Zen. Dist.	660	6′
Pol. Dist.	84	26
Co-Lat.	71	42
2)	222	14
	ļ11	7
lst rem.	26	41
2d rem.	39	25

First. Sin. Pol. Dist. × Sin. Co-lat.; or Rad. : PD :: Sin Co-lat. : Arc 1st.

Second. Sin. 1st rem. × Sin. 2d rem., or Arc 1st: Sin. 1st rem. ::

Sin. 2d rem. : Arc 2d.

Third. To find the supplement of A, from 17° 34' Arc 2d or $(\frac{1}{4}A)^2$.

V. S.
$$113^{\circ} 22' = \text{suppl. of A}$$

SIN $17^{\circ} 34' = (\frac{1}{4} A)^{2}$

Then $180^{\circ} - 113^{\circ} 22' = 66^{\circ} 38' = A$, the Hour angle sought.

It will be seen that the operation is in fact, the same as in p. 51; namely, first $b \times c$, and then $\frac{(h-b)\times(h-c)}{b\times c}=(\frac{1}{4}A)^2$, or ·302 = Nat. Sin. of 17° 34′.

When once $(\frac{1}{4}A)^2$ is found, we can also obtain $\frac{1}{4}A$ on the line SIN: by measuring halfway between $(\frac{1}{4}A)^2$ and 90°: for the line of Sines being a logarithmic scale, halving it is the same as taking the Square Root. Thus, halfway between 17° 34′ and 90°, is 33° 19′ = $\frac{1}{4}A$.

In practice, the 1 foot improved Slide Rule is found to work with more quickness, and far more accuracy, than a Sliding Gunter of 2 feet, an expensive and unwieldy instrument.

The line v. s. (Versed Sines) on Gunter's Scale, is not a line of Versed Sines corresponding to the angles below it on line sin, but it is a line of half the Versed Sines of the supplements of the angles below it on sin. Thus, what is marked on v. s. as 113° 22', is half

or,

the Versed Sine of 66° 38'. It is in fact '302* of the Radius, and exactly under its supplement, or 113° 22', is 17° 34', the Nat. Sine of which is also '302 of the Radius.

So if we take 10° 3′ on line sin. Its Nat. Sine is ·1746. Double this, and we have ·3492, which is the Versed Sine of 49° 24′, whose supplement 130° 36′ on v. s. is just over 10° 3′ on sin.

Again, take the 8th Example in the List, in page 52; the result by the improved Slide Rule is

$$\frac{.853 \times .147}{.994 \times .725} = .1746 = \sin. \left(\frac{1}{2} \text{ A}\right)^{2},$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{.853 \times .147}{.721}} = .4178 = \sin. 24^{\circ} 42' = \frac{1}{2} \text{ A},$$

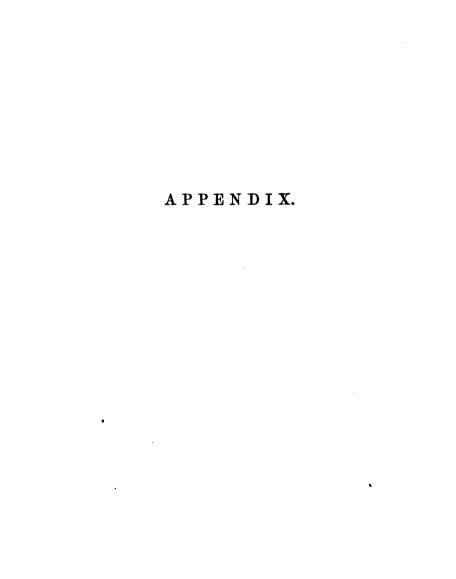
whence A the Hour angle = 49° 24'.

By Gunter's Scale:

Then $180^{\circ} - 130^{\circ} 36' = 49^{\circ} 24' = A$ the Hour angle. In practice, the results by the Gunter, as before stated, are anything but accurate, though the *theory* of the lines is strictly so.

^{*} The Versed Sine of an angle is Radius minus the Cosine of that angle. Hence, if we want the Versed Sine of 66° 38', its Nat. Cosine (or Nat. Sine of 23° 22') is 3966. Deduct this from 1.0 or Radius, and we have 6034 as the v. s. of 66° 38'.

[†] As explained in page 2, 96° 31' (the Pol. Dist.) being too large a figure for the line of Sines, we use the Sine of its supplement, which is the same thing.



	•	

APPENDIX A.

Brief explanation of the face of the Rule which has on it the Slide $\frac{B}{C}$.

For full details, refer to the "Hand-book of the Slide Rule."

THE line A on the upper Stock, and the lines B, C on the Slide, are identical. If on either of these lines we consider the 1 on the extreme left as 1, that in the middle will be 10, and that on the extreme right will be 100. If the 6 on the first radius be read as 60, the 6 on the second radius will be 600; the progression being by tens, either backwards or forwards. So if we consider the 8 on the second radius to be 8, the 8 on the first radius will be 08.

The values of the subdivisions between the figures, are soon observed. For instance, between 4 and 5 are ten spaces; so if 4 be read as 40, the first mark is 41, the next 42, and so on. Again between 2 and 3 are twenty spaces; so if the 2 is read as 20, the first mark (a short one) is 20.5; the next (a long one) 21.0; the next (a short one) 21.5, and so on. If we want to point out 3325, we consider the 3 on either radius as 3000; three of the longer divisions will bring us to 3300, and half-way between this and the next short division (which itself would be 3350), is 3325. It might be 33.25, 3.325, 3.3250 &c., according to the value assigned to the 3. The numbers with which beginners make most mistakes, are 12.5, 103, 11.1 &c.

Let the Slide be drawn out, to the right or to the left, and to any extent; and let a b represent any two numbers on the line A, and c d the two numbers on B under them;

or
$$\frac{A}{B} \frac{a}{c}$$
 $\frac{b}{d}$. Then observe

$$\begin{array}{l}
c:a:d:b, & \text{or } d:b:c:a \\
a:b:c:d, & \text{or } b:a:d:c
\end{array}\right\} b = \frac{a \times d}{c}, a = \frac{b \times c}{d}$$

$$c = \frac{a \times d}{b}, a = \frac{b \times c}{d}$$

$$c = \frac{a \times d}{b}, a = \frac{b \times c}{a}$$

$$\frac{a}{c} = \frac{b}{d}$$
, and $\frac{c}{a} = \frac{d}{b}$.

All this had better be tried, by an example; for instance, let 4 on B be set under 50 on A. Then we have

Here the "proportions" above noted, are seen at once. 3:37.5::6:75, or 70:95::56:76 &c. Fig. 1 in the Plate, represents the Slide set exactly as above; and thus set, it will solve all the examples in the next four pages, except where the Slide is inverted.

Refer to the setting of the Rule shewn in Fig. 1 of the Plate.

£	A	One multiplier	Product
MULTIPLICATION	В	1	Other multiplier
5	A	12.5	50 = Ans.
Mult. 12.5 by 4.	В	1	4
DIVISION	A	1	Quotient
J DIVISION	В	Divisor	Dividend
Dinida 196 bu 0	_A	1	17 = Ans.
Divide 136 by 8.	В	8	136
REDUCTION	A	Numerator	Decimal
)	В	Denominator	1000ths
Reduce $\frac{7\frac{1}{2}}{69$ ths to a decimal.	A	7.5	125
Reduce 69ths to a decimal.	В	60	1000 = 125 Ans.
In like manner the "reciprocal"	of l	is found to be ·125.	-

RULE OF THREE	A	Eith	ier middle Term	La	st Term æ	
J RULE OF THREE	В		First Term	Either n	iddle Term	
4 : 50 :: 5·6 : x	A	50			70 = æ	
(4:50:50:3	В	4			5.6	
$\begin{cases} z = \frac{b \times e}{a}, \text{ or } \frac{c \times b}{a} \\ z = \frac{37.5 \times 7.6}{a} \end{cases}$	A				æ	
<u>)</u> a a	В	a			c	
$x = \frac{37.5 \times 7.6}{}$	A	37.5			95 = A1	u.
3	В	8			7.6	
Multiply 121 by 4, by 5.6, by 7.6 and by 12.	<u>A</u>	12.5	50 70	95	150 Anne	rs.
by 7.6 and by 12.	В	1	4 5.6	7.6	12	

Solve
$$\frac{37.5 \times 4}{3}$$
, $\frac{37.5 \times 4.8}{3}$, $\frac{37.5 \times 6}{3}$ all at once.

A 37.5 50 60 75 Answers

B 3 4 4.8 6

Divide 288 by 12, by 26, by 36, and by 64. Invert the Slide. $\frac{A}{O}$ $\frac{12}{288}$ $\frac{36}{24}$ $\frac{64}{8}$ $\frac{4.5}{4.5}$ Answers

Divide 62 by 4.8, or $\frac{6 \times 6}{4.8}$ $\frac{A}{B}$ $\frac{6}{4.8}$ $\frac{6}{B}$ $\frac{4.6}{4.8}$ $\frac{7.5}{6}$ $\frac{4}{100}$

LINE D.

If the lines C and D are set even, the numbers on C are the Squares of the numbers under them on D; and the numbers on D are the Square Roots of the numbers over them on C. The 1 on the extreme left of C represents 01, —1, —100, —10000; and the 1 in the middle of C represents 10, —1000, —100000; so if we want the Square Root of 2200, we look under the second radius of C, and find 469.

The line D, with C only, reads as follows:

Divide 24^3 by 8, by 9, by 12, and by 16. Invert the Slide.

A $\left(\frac{24}{24}\right)$ 36 48 12

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{a} & \mathbf{b} \\ \hline \mathbf{D} & \mathbf{c} & \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{c}^2 :: d^2 :: a: \mathbf{b} \\ \checkmark a : \checkmark b :: c: d \end{array}$$

So that with these *two* lines, D and C, we solve all cases of $x = \frac{m^2 \times o}{r^2}$, and $x = \frac{\sqrt{t} \times m}{\sqrt{c}}$.

(See Fig. 1 of the Plate; which will do for all the following, except where the Slide is inverted.)

Find the Square of
$$\frac{75}{112}$$
, or $\left(\frac{75}{112}\right)^3$ $\frac{C}{D}$ $\frac{1}{112}$ $\frac{45}{75}$ or this may be read as '01 over 11'2.

Find Square Root of
$$6\frac{1}{4}$$
, or $\sqrt{\frac{55}{8}} \frac{C}{D} \frac{8}{D} \frac{55}{1}$ or this may be read as 800 over 10.

APPENDIX A.

Divide 6° by 48, or $\frac{6 \times 6}{48}$ with A and B, as in the 3d and 4th Examples, p. 111.

Divide 10 by
$$\sqrt{80}$$
.

C 1 80 D
$$1.12 = Ans. (1.118)$$
 10

Find the "Geometric Mean" C 125 of 125 and 180; or
$$x = \sqrt{125 \times 180}$$
 D 125

Solve
$$x = \frac{72 \times 26^2}{30^2}$$

Solve
$$x = \frac{\sqrt{26 \times 68}}{\sqrt{37}}$$

Solve
$$\frac{2.5 \times 18}{1.5^2}$$
 $\frac{3.5 \times 18}{1.5^3}$ $\frac{4.6 \times 18}{1.5^3}$, all at once.

$$\frac{C}{D} \left(\frac{18}{1 \cdot 5} \right) \frac{50 = x}{2 \cdot 5} \frac{98 = y}{3 \cdot 5} \frac{169 = x}{4 \cdot 6}$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{g}}{\mathbf{D}} \left(\frac{43560}{1} \right) \frac{40 = x}{33} \frac{24 \cdot 13 = y}{42} \frac{17 \cdot 42 = z}{50}$$

Divide 42 by
$$\sqrt{36}$$
, $\sqrt{49}$, $\sqrt{196}$. Invert the Side.

$$\frac{g}{D}(\frac{1}{42}) = \frac{196}{3} = \frac{49}{6} = \frac{36 \text{ Answers}}{7}$$

Divide
$$\sqrt{2824}$$
 by $\sqrt{7.5}$, $\sqrt{8}$, $\sqrt{14}$. Invert the Slide.

Divide
$$(8 \times \sqrt{144})$$
 by $\sqrt{36}$, $\sqrt{64}$, $\sqrt{256}$. Invert the Slide.

The line D with C, B, A, reads as follows:

(A	a		
J	В	ь		a:b::d2:c
7	C		c	
•	D		d	√b : √a :: √c : d

Hence with these four lines, we solve $\frac{r \times o}{m^2}$, $\frac{n \times h^2}{s}$, $\frac{\sqrt{p} \times \sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{v}}$.

Solve
$$x = \frac{3.8 \times 9.5}{2.18^3}$$

$$\begin{cases} \frac{A}{B} & \frac{9.5}{7.6} = Ans. \\ \frac{C}{D} & \frac{3.8}{2.18} \end{cases}$$

Solve
$$z = \sqrt{\frac{15 \times 1620}{12}}$$
 or $\frac{\sqrt{15} \times \sqrt{1620}}{\sqrt{12}}$
$$\begin{cases} \frac{A & 15}{B & 12} \\ \frac{C}{D} & \frac{1620}{45 = Ans}. \end{cases}$$

Solve
$$\frac{26 \times 40}{5 \cdot 7^2}$$
, $\frac{26 \times 45}{5 \cdot 7^8}$, $\begin{cases} A & 40 & 45 & 65 \\ \hline B & 32 & 36 & 52 = Ansre \\ \hline \frac{C}{D} & 5 \cdot 7 \end{cases}$, all at once.

Solve
$$\frac{2\cdot74^{8}\times16}{6}$$
, $\frac{2\cdot74^{8}\times18}{6}$, $\begin{cases} A & 20 & 22\cdot5 & 30 = Ansre \\ B & 16 & 18 & 24 \end{cases}$
 $\frac{2\cdot74^{8}\times24}{6}$; all at once. $\begin{cases} C & 6 \\ D & 2\cdot74 \end{cases}$

Solve
$$\sqrt{\frac{5}{4}}$$
 of 180, $\sqrt{\frac{5}{4}}$ of 320, $\sqrt{\frac{B}{4}}$ of 6200; all at once. $\begin{pmatrix} A & 5 \\ B & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} C & 180 & 320 & 6200 \\ D & 15 & 20 & 88 = Anste. \end{pmatrix}$

Solve
$$\frac{5 \times 6^2}{7}$$
, $\frac{5 \times 6^3}{9}$, $\begin{cases} \frac{A}{2} & 7 & 9 & 12 \\ \frac{5 \times 6^2}{12} & \text{Invert the Slide.} \end{cases}$ $\begin{cases} \frac{A}{2} & 7 & 9 & 12 \\ \frac{A}{2} & 25 \cdot 7 & 20 & 15 = Ans. \end{cases}$ Solve $\sqrt{\frac{6 \times 20}{5}}$, $\sqrt{\frac{6 \times 20}{8}}$, $\sqrt{\frac{6 \times 20}{5}}$, $\sqrt{\frac{6 \times 20}{8}}$, $\sqrt{\frac{6 \times 20}{14}}$ Invert the Slide. $\begin{cases} \frac{A}{2} & \frac{6}{2} & \frac{14}{2} & \frac{8}{2} & \frac{5}{2} & \frac{5}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{$

FORMULÆ.

In the "Hand-book of the Slide Rule," are given a great number of "FORMULE," to which the Slide Rule is particularly adapted, and which often supersede whole pages of "Tables." The following are a few:—

T	A	22	Circu	mf. of circle	TT	C	48		Area of circle
••	B	7	Diam	eter of circle	-1	Ď	7.4		Diam. of circle
пі.	Ā	23	St	atute miles autical miles	IV.	c	20		Feet above Sea
	В	20	Na	autical miles		D	6	M	iles dist. of Horizon
v.	A	36	Cu	ons (=1 ton)	VI.	A	6.4		Mètres
	В	224	Gall	ons (=1 ton)		В	21		Feet
VIT.	A	75		Cilogrammes	VIII.	A	Price	in Francs	Shill. per yard '721 (at 25 fr. = 1 £)
	В	34		lbs. Avoir.		В	No.	of Mètres	'721 (at 25 fr. = 1 £)
IX.		Paral	lelopipeds	C One side	e in inch	es		Gallons	[Cubic Feet] side" in inches
ıa.		1 01 01	ictopipeus	D 16·65	[41.57]			" Square	side" in inches
		•	A 1	1-273					
X.		: ز	B Leng	th of Cylind	er				
		7	C					Cubic cor	
		•	D					Diam. of	Cylin.
		(A	29:42 h of Cylin. ir					
XI.		્ર .	B Dept	h of Cylin. ir	1 feet				
		-) :	C				-	Gallons	
		· ·	ע				Dian	a. of Cyl. in	inches

Thus, if as in Formula I. we set 7 on B under 22 on A, we have a "Table" shewing on the line A, the circumferences, to all the diameters on C, and vice versā. So in Formula VII. we have a "Table" for reducing kilogrammes to lbs. Avoir. or vice versā. By Formula VIII. if $13\frac{1}{2}$ mètres cost 94 fr. 50 c. we know it is $5\cdot125$ s. or $5s\cdot1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per yard. By Formula IV. if the eye is 20 feet above the sea, and a light known to be 125 feet above the sea, just visible on the horizon, the distance is $6\cdot3+15\cdot0=21\cdot3$ statute miles, or by Formula III. $18\frac{1}{2}$ nautical miles. To exemplify Formula IX. if we have an iron tank measuring 9 ft. 4 in. by 6ft. 9 in. and 6 ft. deep, required its content in Cubic feet and in gallons. Reduce to inches; and find the "Square side" (being the Geometric Mean) of any two; say 72 and 81 inches, the Geom. Mean of which, as in the 17th of the preceding Examples, is $76\cdot4$

So by Formulæ X. and XI. a Cylinder $2\frac{1}{4}$ feet deep, and $9\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter, has a content of 1910 cubic inches, ar 6.9 gallons.

Observe, that in using the Slide Rule, all the fractional parts must be reduced to decimals. Thus 4£ 17s. is 4.85£. For 6s. 3d. read 6.25s. For 5 lb. 8 oz. read 5.5 lbs. For 1 hr. 42 min. read 1.7 h. &c. For this purpose, the Rule itself may be used, as in the 3d Example, p. II.

LINE E.

If the line E on the back of the Slide is shut in even over D, it exhibits the Cubes, whilst D gives the Cube Roots.

$$\frac{E \ a}{D \ c} \qquad \qquad \frac{b}{d} \qquad \frac{c^3 : d^3 :: a : b}{\sqrt[3]{a} : \sqrt[3]{b} :: c : d}.$$
Mult. $4 \cdot 2^3$ by 8.

$$\frac{E \ 8}{D \ 1} \qquad \qquad \frac{592 \cdot 7}{4 \cdot 2} = Ans.$$
Divide 750 by 5^3 .

$$\frac{E \ 6 = Ans}{D \ 1} \qquad \qquad \frac{750}{5}$$

$$\alpha = \sqrt[3]{\frac{221}{524}} \qquad \qquad -\frac{E \ 221}{D \ 7 \cdot 5} = Ans. \qquad \qquad 10$$

$$\left(\text{Here } \frac{E \ .524}{D \ 1} = \frac{E \ 524}{D \ 10}\right)$$

$$\alpha = \frac{5^3 \times .7}{1.97^3} \qquad \qquad \frac{E \ .7}{D \ 1.97} \qquad \qquad 11 \cdot 45 = Ans.$$

LINE N.

When line N at the back of the Slide, is set even over D (or 4 under 602), it gives the Logarithms of the numbers on D. So to raise 8 to the sixth power, or 86.

First.	Log. of 8.	N 1 D 1	903 <u>=</u> Ans.
Second.	.603 × 6	A ·903 B 1	5·418 = Ans.
Third.	Nat. number of 418	N 1 '418 D 1 262 = Ans.	

The "Index" shewn in the second operation, being 5, the answer must have 6 figures, or 262000. The true answer is 262144.

Example. What will 450£ amount to in 6 years, at "Compound Interest" 4 per cent.? Here $x=1.046\times450$. The Logs. of 1.035 to 1.045 are printed or engraved on the instrument, so that we have $1.04^6 = 017033 \times 6 = 1022$; and line N shews that the Nat. number of 1022 is 1.265. Then $1.265 \times 450 = 569 \pounds$, the Answer.

Example. What is the "present value" of an Annuity of 320£ for

18 years; rate of interest
$$3\frac{1}{6}$$
 per cent.?

Here $x = 320 \times \frac{1 - \frac{1}{1 \cdot 035^{18}}}{035}$. The log. of $1 \cdot 035 = 01494$ is printed on the Rule. Then $01494 \times 18 = 0 \cdot 269$, the complement of which is 9731 , which is the Log of 538 , as shewn by line N. Then $1 - 538 = 462$; and $\frac{320 \times 462}{035} = 4220 \pounds$, as in the 5th Example, page II. By a reverse process, in which the Slide Rule would be equally useful, we should find that the "Annuity" for 20 years, purchasable for $2000 \pounds$, reckoning interest at 4 per cent.

would be
$$2000 \div \frac{1 - \frac{1}{1.04^{20}}}{04}$$
, or $2000 \div \frac{.5425}{04} = 147 \pounds$.

APPENDIX B.

REFRACTION. DIP. DISTANCE OF HORIZON.

"ASTRONOMICAL" Refraction is the apparent angular elevation of the celestial bodies above their true places, caused by the bending of the rays of light in their passage through the atmosphere. On the horizon it is greatest, being about 33' or a sun's breadth, and at the zenith it is nothing. At an altitude of 10° it is 5' 20'', and at $45\frac{3}{4}$ ° it is 1'00''. This supposes the temperature of the air at 50° Fahrenheit,* when the Refraction in" equals Tan. Z. D. \times 57.5;† a Formula well adapted to the Slide Rule.

TAN	Zen. Dist.	45°
A	. Refr. in "	57.5

or reverse the Slide at the back (p. 3).

A	57 ·5	Refr. in "
: NAT	45°	Altitude.

If there is no extra line of Tangents (p. 3) on the back of the Slide, and the Zenith Dist. is above 45°

Thus, Alt. 60° , refr. = 33". Alt. 18° , refr. = 177". Alt. 14° , refr. = 230". Alt. 35° = 83". Alt. 40° = 69".

"Terrestrial" Refraction has reference, not to heavenly bodies beyond the Earth's atmosphere, but to bodies near the Earth's surface. Its effect is, to elevate the surface of the distant horizon

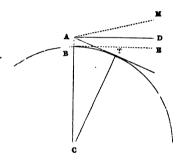
+ At an altitude above 60°, the multiplier is 59; but no refraction at

90° alt.

^{*} The higher the temperature, the rarer the atmosphere, and the less the refraction. Thus, at an altitude of 21° we should have to deduct 5" from the mean refraction, for every degree above 50°; and at an altitude of 33°, 3" for every degree above 50°.

at sea, or on a level expanse of land. Thus, in the following figure if the eye is at A, and AD a horizontal line, the surface of the horizon at T would appear to the eye higher than it really is; that is, the angle of "Dip" DAT would be diminished. Terrestrial Refraction is generally estimated at $\frac{1}{12}$ of the "intercepted are;"* that is, if from B to T is 12 geographical (or nautical miles), the angle of Dip, DAT, would be decreased 1' of arc. (The arc BT, or rather the angle C at the Earth's centre, is always equal to the true Dip, DAT, as will be presently shown.)





In the figure, AT is the tangential line from A the eye of the observer, to the visible horizon at T, and the angle DAT is the Dip. If an object at M is observed, its apparent height above the horizon will, if there be no refraction, be MAT, which is greater than its real angle of elevation DAM, by the Dip DAT.

N.B.—The true Dip DAT is easily shewn to be equal to the "intercepted arc" BT, or in other words, to its angle at the centre of the Earth TCA. For \angle DAT + \angle TAC = 90°, and \angle TAC + \angle TCA = 90°; whence, striking out \angle TAC from each, we have \angle DAT = TCA. So that if the true Dip is 6′, the distance AT (or BT—for the distance is practically the same) is 6 Nautical miles, of 20 to 23 Statute.

^{*} The amount of Terrestrial Refraction is sometimes estimated at $\frac{1}{10}$ th, and sometimes at $\frac{1}{14}$ of the "intercepted arc," i.e. $\frac{1}{10}$ or $\frac{1}{14}$ of the true Dip. The state of the atmosphere near the surface of the Earth varies so greatly and so rapidly, that there is no certainty in the estimate.

The true Dip to any height h (= AB in the figure), is thus obtained. From the above figure (where d = distance AT), CT: Radius:: AT: Tan. C; or Tan. C = $\frac{rad. \times d}{r}$.* We shall shew, when speaking of the "Distance of the horizon," page 72, that $d = \sqrt{2r \times h}$, whence Tan. C = $\frac{rad. \times \sqrt{2r \times h}}{r} = \frac{rad. \times \sqrt{2r \times \sqrt{h}}}{r}$

$$= rad. \times \sqrt{h} \times \frac{\sqrt{2}r}{r} = rad. \times \sqrt{h} \times \frac{\sqrt{41777400}}{20888700} = rad. \times h$$

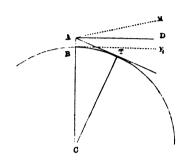
 \times '003094; whence Tan. C = $\sqrt{h} \times$ '0003094 \times radius. Now, as we want the Dip as an *angle*, and not as a *tangent*, we may, when the angle is so small, substitute the arc (and thence its angle) for the tangent, and consider the *arc* of C to be the tangent of C. If we want the true Dip in ', we know that radius = an arc of 57.3°, or 3437.75'; whence the arc of C, or the true dip in ' when h is given in feet, is $\sqrt{h} \times 0003094 \times 3437.75 = \sqrt{h} \times 1.0637$; whence the formula

But the Dip is affected by Refraction, that is, it is lessened by about $\frac{1}{12}$ of itself (or $\frac{1}{12}$ of the "intercepted arc"), as shewn in page 70. The apparent Dip, therefore, or that which in practice has to be deducted from the angle of elevation of a heavenly body, when the eye of the observer is above the surface, is $\frac{1}{12}$ of the true Dip, or $\frac{1}{12}$ ($\sqrt{h} \times 1064$) when h is in feet, and angle of Dip in'. Hence the apparent Dip = $\sqrt{h} \times 975$. So if h = 127 feet, the true Dip is 12', and the apparent dip 11'. The following is the Formula for the Slide Rule:

\mathbf{C}	1	33	Height in feet apparent dip in'	/ 40 \
D	·975	5.6	apparent dip in'	\ 370 "/

^{*} BC and CT each represent a radius of the earth = r, or 20888750 feet, giving a diameter of 41777400 feet, or 79124 statute, or 68755 geographical (or nautical) miles. d = distance AT.

DISTANCE OF THE HORIZON.



In the figure, let r or BC or TC = radius of the earth.

h = AB, the height of the observer's eye.

d = AT, the distance of the visible horizon from the observer.

Then
$$h = \frac{d^2}{2r}$$
, and $d = \sqrt{2r \times h}$

[It may be proved thus. The angle ATC being always a right angle, we have from Euclid I. 47 $(r \times h)^2 = r^2 + d^2$.

Expand
$$(r \times h)^2$$
; and $r^2 + 2rh + h^2 = r^2 + d^2$
or $2rh + h^2 = d^2$
or $2rh = d^2 - h^2$
Divide by $2r$, and $h = \frac{d^2}{2r} - \frac{h^2}{2r}$

But $\frac{h^2}{2r}$, even when h=4 miles of elevation, is only $\frac{16}{7912\cdot 4}$ statute miles, or $10\frac{1}{2}$ feet; so it may be omitted as a subtractive quantity; whence we have

$$h = \frac{d^2}{2r}$$
; and $d = \sqrt{2r \times h}$.

The same result is obtained from Euclid III. 36, by which $(2r+h) \times h = d^2$; whence $2rh + h^2 = d^2$. Omitting h^2 as an additive, being so small, we have $2rh = d^2$, or $d = \sqrt{2r \times h}$ as before.]

Now 2r, or the diameter of the Earth, is 6875.5 geographical

or nautical miles; * so that $h = \frac{d^2}{6876}$ in geographical miles. Or if we take h = height in feet, then $h = \frac{d^2 \times 6076}{6875 \cdot 5} = \cdot 88376 \ d^3$; and $d = \sqrt{1.1315} \ h$, or $\sqrt{h} \times 1.0637$; the same as the angle of true Dip. (N.B.—p. 71).

All the above supposes no refraction. The effect of this is, to decrease the value of h, or the amount of Earth's curvature, by $\frac{1}{6}$ th or $\frac{1}{7}$ th. † If we take $\frac{1}{6}$ th, then including refraction, $h = \frac{5 \times .884}{6} d^2$ or .7364 d^2 . Hence the formula

$$\begin{cases} \frac{A}{B} & \frac{1}{.7364} \\ \frac{C}{D} & \text{Feet above sea (or curvature)} \\ \hline 0 & \text{Dist. of horizon, in Naut. miles} \end{cases}$$

OR,

It is sometimes useful in Surveying, to use Statute miles.

In this case,
$$h = \frac{d^2 \times 5280}{7912 \cdot 4} = .6673 d^2 \text{ or } \frac{2}{3} d^2$$
,

$$d = \sqrt{1.50 h}$$
, or $\sqrt{h} \times 1.224$, or $\sqrt{\frac{3 \times h}{2}}$.

This supposes no refraction, and gives a curvature to the earth of a fall of 8 inches in a statute mile, or $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch in 200 yards. Assuming the effect of refraction, as above given, to decrease the

^{*} The geographical or nautical mile is 6076 feet. The statute mile is 5280 feet; a proportion of 69 05 to 60, or 23 to 20.

[†] If we assume $\frac{1}{7}$ th, h=.758 d^2 or $\frac{C}{D}=\frac{9.25}{3.5}=h$ in feet is allowed, it is about equivalent to a refraction of $\frac{1}{12}$ of the intercepted arc, added to d. For example, if h=127 feet, and no refraction, d=12 Naut. miles; with refraction 13.1 Naut. miles. Assuming $\frac{1}{7}$ th, d would be 12.9 Naut, miles.

value of h or amount of curvature, by $\frac{1}{6}$ th, we have when refraction is included, $h = \frac{5}{6}$ of $\frac{2}{3}d^2 = \frac{5}{9}d^3$. Hence the formula

$$\begin{cases} \frac{A}{B} & 9 \\ \hline C & h = \text{feet above level} \\ \hline D & d = \text{visible hor. in } \textit{Stat. miles} \end{cases}$$

$$C & b & feet above level$$

$$C & 5 & h = \text{feet above level} \\ \hline D & 3 & d = \text{visible hor. in } \textit{Stat. miles} \end{cases}$$

(Sometimes the refraction is estimated to decrease the curvature by $\frac{1}{7}$ th; in this case $k = \frac{6}{7}$ of $\frac{2}{3}$ d^2 , or $\frac{4}{7}$ d^2 .) If the wire of a Levelling instrument coincides with a line or mark, one statute mile off, that line will not be 8 inches higher from the surface than the line of the instrument, (as it would be if there were no refraction,) but it will be $6\frac{2}{3}$ inches only, higher from the surface of the earth. This $6\frac{2}{3}$ inches in 1 mile, is equal to $\frac{1}{10}$ inch in 215 yards, or $\frac{1}{100}$ of a foot in 234 yards.

Inaccessible Distances.

The following Formulæ are founded on the fact that the arc of an angle of 57.296 degrees, is equal to the Radius, or in other words that the arc subtended by an angle of 1" is equal to $\frac{1}{206264.8}$ of the Radius. These Formulæ are only adapted to angles under 3°; for in such small angles the *chord* subtended, is equal, for all purposes, to the arc.

A	Angle in "	Height of object
B	206265	Distance
A	Angle in '	Height or subtense
B	3437:7	Distance
A	Angle in '	Subtense in feet
B	1146	Distance in yards

APPENDIX B.

A	Angle in '	Subtense in feet
$\overline{\mathbf{B}}$	·651 [·566]	Dist, in Stat. miles [Naut. miles]

Thus by Formula 3d, if a man 6 feet high subtends an angle of 6.9′, his distance is 1000 yards; and a foot rule at the distance of 1 mile, will subtend 39′′, or .651′. Again, if a vessel known to be 150 ft. long, subtends an angle of 42.5′; her distance is 2 Nautical miles.

A vessel of about 1000 tons, is observed just hull down, and an angle taken from the sea to her main-topsail yard is 8' 30". Supposing the yard to be 100 feet above deck, what is her distance in Nautical miles?

To find Distances and Heights at Sea.

When the height of a distant mountain is known, and its angle observed, some very elaborate rules are given in a pamphlet by the late Lieut. Raper, and in the "Admiralty Manual," for finding the Distance in Nautical miles. The very great uncertainty as to the amount of "Terrestrial refraction" (N.B. p. 69) renders such very close calculations quite as liable to an error of a mile or so, as the following short method by the Slide Rule, by "trial and error:"

[I.]
$$\frac{A}{B}$$
 Angle (corrected for true Dip) in 'Height in feet= x (p. 75.)

Dist. in Naut. miles (p. 75.)

Feet above level = y (p. 73.)

Dist. in Naut. miles (p. 73.)

We suppose the *estimated* Distance given to within 4 or 5 miles. Then if we can get x by [I.] and y (by II.), to equal, *together*, the known height of the mountain, the Distance taken is correct.

Example. Diana's Peak at St. Helena is known to be 2700 feet high. It was observed from a ship's deck, the eye 20 feet above the sea, at an angle of 1° 16′ 46″; the estimated distance being 16

Nautical miles. Angle corrected for true Dip (p. 71) = 1° 16' 46" -4' 46" = 1° 12'.

[I.]
$$\frac{A}{B} \cdot \frac{72'}{566}$$
 $\frac{2035 = x}{16}$

The true Dip having been subtracted from the observed angle, the result is as if the eye were at B (fig. page 72), and we were measuring an "inaccessible distance" (page 74).

The 2035 feet is therefore the subtended portion of the mountain which is visible above the horizon. But now we have to add the portion concealed from view by the curvature of the Earth, as in page 73.

[II.]
$$\frac{C}{D} = \frac{9}{3.5}$$
 $\frac{188 = 9}{16}$

Then 2035 + 188 = 2223; which won't do, for the given height is 2700 feet. It is evident we have assumed too short a distance. Then try 19 miles, and we have

[I.]
$$\frac{A}{B} \cdot 566$$
 $\frac{2417 = x}{19}$
[II.] $\frac{C}{D} \cdot \frac{9}{3.5}$ $\frac{265 = x}{19}$

Then 2417 + 265 = 2682 or within 20 feet of the given height, so that we] are sure that 19 Nautical miles, is as near the true Distance as could be obtained by mathematical computation of some length.

Example (from the Admiralty Manual). Mount Etna, said to be about 19000 feet high, was observed at an angle of $1^{\circ} 30'$; the eye being 20 feet above the sea. Estimated distance 55 nautical miles. Corrected angle $1^{\circ} 30' - 4' 45'' = 1^{\circ} 25' 15''$. (This true Dip 4' 45'' is found by the Formula, p. 71.)

[I.]
$$\frac{A}{B}$$
 $\frac{85.25}{.566}$ $\frac{8300 = x}{.55}$
[II.] $\frac{C}{D}$ $\frac{9}{.3.5}$ $\frac{2225 = y}{.55}$

But 8300 + 2225 equals 10525 which is not enough, and shews that the estimated distance is too small. Try 57 miles for Distance.

[I.]	A	85 ·2 5	8590 = x
[]	$\overline{\mathbf{B}}$	·566	57
[II.]	C	9	2390 = y
[rr.]	$\overline{\mathtt{D}}$	3.5	57

Here 8590 + 2390 = 10980 feet for Etna's height, which is so near the truth, that the last assumed Distance 57 Nautical miles, may be considered *correct*. The elaborate computation in the "Admiralty Manual," makes it 57 miles distant, at a height of 10956 feet.

Example (from the Admiralty Manual). Snowdon, whose height is 3565 feet, was observed at an angle of 45' 05", the eye being 14 feet above the surface. Estimated Distance 40 miles. True dip to 14 feet by Formula in p. 71 = 4' 05", making the corrected angle 41'.

[I.]
$$\frac{A}{B} \frac{41'}{566}$$
 $\frac{2900 = x}{40}$
[II.] $\frac{C}{D} \frac{9}{3.5}$ $\frac{1175 = y}{40}$

Here x + y gives 4075 feet for the height of Snowdon, which is too great, shewing that the assumed distance 40 miles is too great. Try 35 miles.

[I.]	A	41'	2540 = x
[1.]	В	·566	35
[II.]	C	9	900 = y
	$\overline{\mathbf{D}}$	3.5	35

Here x + y gives 3440, which is too little, and the assumed distance too small. Try 36 miles.

[I.]
$$\frac{A}{B} \cdot \frac{41'}{566}$$
 $\frac{2600 = x}{36}$
[II.] $\frac{C}{D} \cdot \frac{9}{3'5}$ $\frac{955 = y}{36}$

Here x + y = 3555, or only 10 feet difference from the required height; so that the last assumed Distance, 36 Nautical miles, may be considered correct. By the "Admiralty Manual" it is 35.6 miles.

N.B.—It is to be observed that in the more elaborate mathematical solutions of this problem, the *estimated distance* is not given; but in practice, the distance is always known within 4 or 5 miles, and though 3 or 4 trials may be required by the Slide Rule to obtain x + y = the height of the mountain, it will not occupy more time than 2 or 3 minutes.

If the Distance is known, and the Height of the mountain required from the observed angle, the solution is simple with the Slide Rule.

Example. Distance known to be $13\frac{1}{2}$ Nautical miles. The observed angle 2° 4′ 25″. Eye elevated 20 feet. Here the angle corrected for True Dip to 20 feet (p. 71), is 2° 4′ 25″ — 4′ 45″ = 1° 59′ 40″.

A	119.7'	2860 = x
B	·566	13.5
C	9	133 = y
$\overline{\mathbf{D}}$	3.5	13.5

and x + y = 2993, the Height required. By mathematical computation it was 3000 feet; but owing to the uncertainty of Terrestrial refraction, 2993 is as likely to be right as 3000.

APPENDIX C.

Multiplication, Division, &c. of Angles.

a =the Angle required; x =the number required.

Ex. 1.—Sin. $a = \frac{3}{4}$ Radius. (Here 4:3: radius (sin. 90°): a.)

Ex. 2.—Sin. $a = \frac{220}{350}$ (of Radius). Here 350 : 90° or radius

:: **22**0 : a.

Ex. 3.—Cos. $a = \frac{103}{257}$ (of Radius). Here 257 : 103 :: radius (sin. 90°) : complement of the required angle.

Ex. 4.—Tan. $a = \frac{134}{164}$ (of Radius). Here 164 : 134 :: Rad. (tan. 45°) : a.

*Ex. 5.—Tan. $a = \frac{390}{265}$ (of Radius). Here 265 : 390 :: Rad. (tan. 45°) : a.

TAN	45°	55° 45′
A	265	390

^{*} When, as in Examples 5 and 6, the denominator (or divisor) is less than the numerator, and there is no extra line of Tangents on the back of

Ex. 6.—Tan. $a = 1\frac{1}{4}$ Radius, or $\frac{4}{5}$.

TAN	45°	510 20'
A	4	5

Ex. 7— $x = 229 \times \sin. 56^{\circ} 15'$. (Here Rad. (or sin. 90°): $229 :: \sin. 56^{\circ} 15' : x$.)

A	191	229
SIN	56° 15′	 90

Ex. 8. $-x = 6 \times \cos .58^{\circ}$. (Here Rad. (or sin. 90°): 6:: sin. compl. 58: x.)

Ex. 9.— $x = 5 \times \tan 36^{\circ} 30'$. (Here Rad. (tan. 45°): 5:: tan. 36° 30': x.)

*Bx. 10.— $x = 7 \times \tan. 57^{\circ}$. (Here Rad. (tan. 45°): 7:: tan. 57°: x.)

TAN	45°	57°
A	. 7	10.8

the Slide (p. 4), we can only obtain with the usual line TAN, the complement of the answer. Thus, Ex. 5:

45°

	A	265	390
and	TAN	compl. of answer	45°
	A	. 4	5

compl. of answer

TE A DE

* When there is no extra line (p. 4), of Tangents, on the back of the Slide, we must, when the Tangent is above 45°, use the complement of the angle. Thus in Ex. 10:

TAN	33°	(compl. of 57°)	45°
A	7		 10.8

Ex. 11.— $x = 235 \times \text{sec. } 56^{\circ} \ 15'$. (Same as $\frac{235}{\sin. \ 33\frac{3}{4}}$).

Ex. 12. $-x = \frac{250}{\sin 22^{\circ} 30'}$. (Here sin. 22° 30′: 250 :: sin 90° (Rad.) : x).

Ex. 13. $-x = \frac{235}{\cos .56^{\circ} 15'} = 423$. Solved as $\frac{235}{\sin .33^{\circ} 45'}$. Exs. 11 and 12.

Ex. 14. $x = \frac{250}{\tan 22^{\circ} 30}$. (Here 250 : tan. 22° 30 :: Rad. (tan. 45°) : x).

Ex. 15. $-x = \frac{\tan. 27^{\circ} 30'}{\sin. 70^{\circ}}$. (Here sin. $70^{\circ} : 1 :: \tan. 27^{\circ} 30'$: x).

$$\begin{cases} \frac{A}{SIN} & \frac{1}{70^{\circ}} \\ \frac{TAN}{554} & \frac{27^{\circ} \, 30'}{554} \end{cases}$$

Ex. 16. $-x = \frac{\sin 64^{\circ} 10'}{\tan 26^{\circ} 34'}$. (Here tan. 26° 34' : 1 :: sin. 64° 10' : x),

* Ex. 11 may also be solved with the Inverted Slide:

Ex. 17.
$$-x = \frac{250 \times \sin. 67^{\circ} 30'}{\sin. 22^{\circ} 30'}$$
.

A 250 604

Ex. 18.—Sin. $a = \sin 13^{\circ} 4' \times 1583$. [(Here 1::1583:: $\sin 13^{\circ} 4' : \sin a$).

*Ex. 19.—Sin. $a = \sin$. 51° 30′ × sin. 23° 28′. (Here it is necessary, first to find (as in p. 2) the Nat. sine of one of the angles, —say 51° 30′ = '783; and then 1: sin. 23° 28′:: '783: sin a.)

Or the two Natural sines '783 and '398 may be taken out together, and then multiplied by the lines $\frac{A}{B}$ = '312; the Nat. sine of which is 18° 10'.

*Ex. 20.—Sin. $a = \tan$. $31^{\circ} 10' \times \tan$. $11^{\circ} 14'$. (Here it is necessary, first to find (as in p. 3) the Nat. \tan . of one of the angles,—say $11^{\circ} 14' = 199$; and then $1 : \tan$. $31^{\circ} 10' :: 199 : \sin a$.)

$$\begin{cases} \frac{A}{8IN} & \frac{\cdot 199}{6^{\circ} 54'} \\ \frac{TAN}{A} & \frac{31^{\circ} 10'}{1} \end{cases}$$

Or the two Natural tangents 199 and 605 may be taken out together, and then multiplied by the lines $\frac{A}{B}$ = 1203; the Nat. sin. of which is 6° 54′.

^{*} In cases such as Examples 16 and 17, &c. where one of the two given angles is *constant*, that one should be selected for taking out the Nat. sine, or Nat, tangent.

Ex. 21.—Sin. $a = \sin . 18^{\circ} \times \tan . 30^{\circ}$. First find the Nat. tan. of 30° (as in p. 3) to be .577. Then $1:.577:.\sin . 18^{\circ}:\sin . a$.

Ex. 2.2.—Sin. $a = \frac{\sin . 39^{\circ} \ 30'}{4}$. Here $4:1::\sin . 39^{\circ} \ 40'$

: sin. a.

***Ex.** 23.—Tan. $a = \tan .77^{\circ} \times .917$. First find, as in p. 4, the Nat. tan. of $77^{\circ} = 4.33$. Then Rad. $(\tan .45^{\circ}) : 917 :: \tan .77^{\circ}$: tan. a.

Ex. 24.—Tan. $a = \sin .45^{\circ} 20' \times \sin .34^{\circ} 3'$. First find the Nat. sine of one of the angles—say $45^{\circ} 20' = 711$. Then $1 : \sin .34^{\circ} 3' :: 711 : \tan .a$.

$$\begin{cases} \frac{A}{\sin} & \frac{1}{34^{\circ} 3'} \\ \frac{TAN}{A} & \frac{21^{\circ} 43'}{711} \end{cases}$$

†Ex. 25.—Tan. $a = \tan . 52^{\circ} \times \tan . 61^{\circ}$. First find the Nat. tan. of one of the angles—say $52^{\circ} = 1.28$. (Here 1: $\tan . 61^{\circ}$:: 1.28: $\tan . a$).

TAN	61°	66° 32′
A	1	1.28

^{*} Should the tangent exceed 45°, and no extra line of Tangents (p. 4), the setting would be as follows:

[†] Here, as both angles exceed 45°, if there is no extra line of Tangents (p. 4), we must find the Nat. tan. of both (as in p. 4), to be 1.28 and 1.8, and multiply them by the lines $\frac{A}{B}$ to get 2.304 the Nat. tan. of the answer.

Ex. 26.—Tan. $a = \sin 18^{\circ} \times \tan 30^{\circ}$. First find the Nat. sine of 18° to be 309. Then 1: 309:: $\tan 30^{\circ}$: $\tan a$.

TAN	10° 7′	_	30
A	.309		1

Ex. 27.—Tan. $a = \frac{\tan . 35^{\circ}}{5}$. (Here $5:1::\tan . 35^{\circ}:\tan . a$). $\frac{\tan r \cdot 58'}{A} = \frac{35^{\circ}}{5}$

Ex. 28.—Sin. $a = \frac{\sin . 23^{\circ}}{\sin . 51^{\circ} 30'}$. First find Nat. sin. 51° 30′ = 782, and then it becomes $\frac{\sin . 23^{\circ}}{.782}$ as in Ex. 22.

Ex. 29.—Sin. $a = \frac{\tan. 27^{\circ} 30'}{\sin. 70^{\circ}}$. Here we must first find the *Numeral* answer 554 (as in Ex. 15), which is the Nat. sin. of 33° 40′, (p. 2.)

Ex. 30.—Tan. $a = \frac{\tan. 27^{\circ} 30'}{\sin. 70^{\circ}}$. Here we must first find the Numeral answer .554 (as in Ex. 15), which is the Nat. tan. of 29°.

Ex. 31.—Tan. $a = \frac{\sin. 64^{\circ} 10'}{\tan. 26^{\circ} 34'}$. Here we must first find the Numeral answer 1.8, which is (p. 4) the Nat. tan of 60° 57′.

Ex. 32.—Tan. $a = \frac{325 \times \text{tan. } 36^{\circ} \ 30'}{1320}$. (Here 1320 : 325 :: tan. 36° 30' : tan. a).

APPENDIX D.

GREAT CIRCLE SAILING.

SINCE the meridians of the Earth are not parallel, but converge to the Poles, it follows that a line that crosses each meridian at the same angle, must be a curve, or portion of a spiral; and this is the case when sailing on a Rhumb. Though the course a vessel should steer to sail from one place to another on a Rhumb, is simple enough (it is, in fact, only to keep to one compass course throughout), it is not the course which makes the shortest distance. The shortest distance between two places on the surface of a sphere is the arc of the "great circle" that passes between them (which arc, if continued sectionally, would cut through the sphere at its centre); but to adopt this, requires that the compass course should be perpetually changing, and the labour of computing the track, and this constant change, renders "Great Circle" sailing unacceptable to seamen in general; especially as it seldom makes a difference of above 1 or 2 per cent. in the distance, and under the most favourable circumstances that can practically be adopted, not above 5 or 6 per cent.

A vessel sailing due N. or S. or on the Equator due E. and W., is sailing on a "great circle," and, in these cases, the usual method of sailing is Great Circle sailing.

To prove that the course when "sailing on a rhumb" is a curve, or portion of a spiral, mark on a Globe a spot on any of the Meridians; draw with a fine camel-hair brush, in water-colour, a line at an angle of 45° (or a N.E. course), till it reaches the next meridian. At this place draw another N.E. line to the next meridian, and so on, crossing each meridian at the same dragle, i.e. 45°. This will represent the track of a ship sailing N.E. by compass, or sailing on a Rhumb. It will be seen that the line is a curve, or portion of a spiral round the Pole, and the nearer the meridians are laid down on the globe, the more evident will the case be. This kind of line is called a "loxodromic curve," and a ship sailing on it continuously,

would reach the Pole after circulating an infinite number of times round it.

To show the difference between the track of a vessel "sailing on a Rhumb," and the "Great Circle track," mark on a globe two places, each in Lat. 50° N. Stretch a thread across from one to the other; this will show the "great circle" route. The line engraved on the globe as the parallel of 50°, will show the line that a vessel sailing on a Rhumb would steer, and it will be seen that the distance on that line must be much greater than the distance shown by the thread, which will, in fact, appear as a line curving away from the Pole. If these two lines were laid down on a Mercator's Chart (which could easily be done by noting at what latitudes on the Globe the thread crosses every 4° or 5° Longitude), the "great circle" track would appear on the chart as a curve, towards the Pole, whilst the "rhumb line" track, or the parallel of latitude engraved on the chart, would appear as a straight line, giving a very erroneous impression as to which was the shortest route. This is owing to the principles on which a Mercator's Chart is projected, the meridians being parallel instead of converging. The difference between the "great circle" and the "rhumb" track is greatest when the course is nearly East and West, and in high latitudes.

The chief theoretical difficulty in "Great Circle" sailing, is the fact that the compass course changes every instant. That it must do so is evident, because the arc of a great circle drawn on a Globe, cuts each meridian (be they ever so near) at a different angle, and as the compass bearing is the angle between the meridian and the point indicated, this bearing must change at every Meridian; so that if we conceive a meridian at every 1' of Longitude, the compass bearing changes at every 1' of Longitude.

A vessel from the Cape (Table Bay) to Rio Janeiro, would, by the ordinary routine, steer W. by N. throughout, and make the distance 3,306 miles. Sailing on a "Great Circle," the distance would be 3,266 miles, but the course at first would be about W.½ S.—in Long. 8° 31' E. it would be due West—and at the end, about W.N.W. The theoretical difficulty of changing the ship's course every moment, is obviated practically, by finding (either by pointing the track on a Globe—or by Towson's Tables—or by computation) in what Latitude the Great Circle Track crosses a given Longitude, say 4° or 5° from the point of Departure, in the direction the ship is bound. Then, by Middle Latitude Sailing, compute the course between these two points. There will be no appreciable difference

so far, between a curve and a straight line. A series of Points, at every 5° of Longitude, may be found for the whole distance, and the track (apparently a curve towards the nearest Pole) laid down on the Mercator's Chart.

A 12-inch Globe, either Celestial or Terrestrial, will show a Great Circle track as near as most ships usually steer. Any two. points representing the points of departure and arrival, being marked with paint (which will wash off), we can by lowering or elevating the brazen Meridian, get these two points to coincide with the wooden horizon. Then with a fine brush, paint a line just even with the horizon, joining the 2 points. The number of degrees between the 2 points, as shown on the wooden Horizon, gives the Distance, and the painted line the Course. By elevating the brazen meridian again, and marking at what latitude the successive meridians pass under it, we get a series of Points, from which the track may be laid down on the Mercator's Chart. It may also be observed (though not required except as a check on getting into too high a Latitude,) that when the points and track are lying even with the wooden horizon, the latitude shown by the brazen meridian, where it cuts the horizon, is the "Latitude of the Vertex," and the Longitude (on the Equator or Equinoctial line) cut by the brazen Meridian, is the "Longitude of the Vertex."

For Example. A vessel off Cape Clear (Ireland), in Lat. 51° 20' N. and Long. 9° 30' W., wishes to shape a Course for Cape Race (Newfoundland), in Lat. 46° 40' N. and Long. 53° 00' W. Mark these 2 points on the Globe; depress the N. Pole till these 2 points coincide with the wooden Horizon. Paint a fine red line from one point to the other, level with the Horizon. It will be found that Cape Clear is N. 51° E. and Cape Race N. 231° W., or a total Distance of 281 degrees = 1,710 miles. It will also be seen that the horizon cuts the brazen Meridian at Lat. 513° N., which is the "Latitude of the Vertex," and that the brazen Meridian cuts the Equator (or Equinoctial) in Long. 19½° W., which is the "Longitude of the Vertex." Raise the brazen Meridian so as to get a good sight of the line of arc, or ship's track, and it will be found that at the successive Longitudes of 15°, 20°, 25°, 30°, 35°, 40°, 45°, 50° W. it will be cut in Latitudes 51½°, 51½°, 51½°, 51½°, 50½°, 50°, 49°, 47½°.* These points can all be marked on an Outline or Track Chart, and a line

^{*} The correct Points of the track will be shown in the computed Example, four pages on.

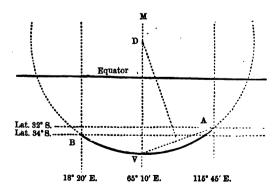
drawn through them, which will represent, near enough for most purposes, the Great Circle route.

N.B.—The "Course" for the first day's run may be deduced from the track in the usual way with the Parallel Ruler, or with a semicircular Protractor of paper, \(\frac{1}{2} \) an inch in diameter, which can easily be made and marked to \(\frac{1}{2} \) Points, so as to be read to \(\frac{1}{4} \) Points by estimation. It will also suit for a 12-inch Globe. The more correct method of finding the Course will be given presently. If at the end of the first day's run, the ship is found to be much off the marked Track, a new one from the plan arrived at, must be laid down, rather than attempt to get back to the old track.

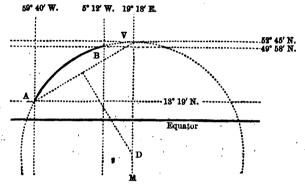
Great Circle Sailing is limited in practice, chiefly because it would often lead into such high Latitudes as to cause risk from icebergs. A vessel, for instance, from the Cape to Hobart Town, would have to go as far as 62° S., and the G. C. track from Cook's Straits, New Zealand, to Cape Horn leads into 66¾ S. In these cases, the extreme limit of Latitude is to be decided on before-hand, and a kind of medium curve adopted, which, though not so short as the Great Circle arc, is shorter than a Rhumb Course. This will be explained under the head of "Composite Sailing."

It may be useful to explain some of the terms used in Great Circle Sailing, and then to show the method of *computation*, when exactness is required.

It has already been stated that the shortest distance between any two places on the Earth's surface is that portion of a "great circle" which joins those places. This portion or arc, if continued on the surface of a Globe, will meet the Equator at two opposite points,



the Longitudes of which are 180° from each other; and the points on each semicircular are, half-way between these two Longitudes, will be their Vertices, one in the N., the other in the S. hemisphere; i.e. these Vertices will be the places where each semicircle attains its highest Latitude. The Vertex, when the course is not far from East and West, will be somewhere "on" the arc joining the two places, as in the preceding figure, which represents the Great Circle course on a Mercator's Chart, from the Cape of Good Hope (B) to Swan River (A); or it may be "out" of the arc, i.e. on a prolongation of it, as in the following figure (this is always the



case when the latitude of the Vertex is found to exceed the latitude of either place), which represents the Great Circle track on a Mercator's Chart, from Barbadoes (A) to the Lizard (B).

To draw the Track on the Chart.

It is necessary first to obtain the latitude and longitude of the Vertex—either by computation (as shown farther on), or approximately by a Globe, or Towson's Tables. Draw on the Chart (as in the preceding figures) the Meridian of the Vertex VM. Join V and the place farthest from it, and bisect this line. From the point of bisection draw a perpendicular till it meets the Meridian of the Vertex at D. With D as a centre, describe the arc AB, which nearly represents the Great Circle track;* whence the interval points along the arc, whereby to get the Course to be steered can be taken out.

^{*} This track will give rather too high latitudes about half-way between the Vertex, and the places sailed from and to.

N.B.—In practice, unless as a matter of interest the whole track is wanted for inspection on the Chart, it is unnecessary to find the Course except for the first day's run; because if at the close of that run, it is found that the vessel has deviated, say 30 miles from the track, it is better to lay down a fresh Great Circle track from the point reached, than to steer so as to rejoin the track left.

METHOD OF COMPUTATION.

Of the two places given, let B be always the one of greatest latitude, and A the one of least latitude. Let V be the Vertex.

The usual process is first to find the Distance; then the Latitude of the Vertex; then the Longitude of the Vertex; and lastly, a point on the Great Circle arc, about 5° of Longitude from the last place left, whereby to work the Course and Distance of one day's run by the usual Rhumb method. (Several of these points, at intervals of 5° of Longitude, may be found, if required to lay down the whole track. See N.B. preceding.)

To find the "Distance." *

I. Cos.
$$x = \sqrt{(\sin \frac{1}{2}) \cdot (\sin \frac{1}{2})^2 \times \cos \cdot (at)} \times \cos \cdot (at) \cdot A \times \cos \cdot (at) \cdot B$$
.

II. Cos.
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 Distance = $\sqrt{\sin (x + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{diff, lat.}) \times \sin (x - \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{diff. lat.})}$

Example. A vessel off Cape Clear, in 51° 20' N. lat. and 9° 30' W. long., requires her Great Circle Distance to a point just off Cape Race (en route to New York), in 46° 40' N. lat., and 53° 00' W. long.

^{*} Or the "Distance" may thus be found, as a check on the other.

I. $y = \sqrt{(\sin \frac{1}{2}) diff. \log ^3 \times \cos lat. A \times \cos lat. B}$.

II. tan. arc. 1st. = $y \div \sin \frac{1}{2}$ diff. lat.

III. Sin. $\frac{1}{2}$ Distance = $y \div \sin$. Arc 1st.

To find "Latitude" of Vertex.

Cos. lat. V =
$$\frac{\cos$$
. lat. A × cos. lat. B × sin. diff. Long. sin. Distance.

Lat. A = 46° 40′ cos. 9.836477

Lat. B = 51 20 cos. 9.795733

Diff. Long. = 43 30 sin. 9.837812

29.470022

Distances = 28° 29' sin. 29.470022 9.678430 Lat. of V. 51° 46' N. cos. 9.791592

Here, as Lat. V exceeds both Lat. A and Lat. B, the Vertex is "in" the arc.

To find "Longitude" of Vertex.

- (I) Cos. $m = \tan$. Lat. A \times cotan. Lat. V.
- (II) m ~ Long. A = Longitude of Vertex.

N.B.—m is the diff. Long. between the Meridian of V, and the Meridian of A (it is sometimes called "the Meridian from the Vertex); and is East of A, if B is East of A; and vice versa.

To find one, or a succession of Points on the Arc.

Let d = diff. long. between the Meridian of the Vertex, and the Meridian of any point P, on the Arc. Then for the latitude of P

Tan. Lat. $P = \cos d \times \tan$. Lat. Vertex.

In the above Example, a steamer leaving Cape Clear may be expected to make about 8° of Longitude in the day's run, or what will bring her to Long. 17° 30′ W. Required the Latitude of this Point.

Longitude of Vertex = 19° 87·5′ W.

Longitude of P = 17 80 W.

$$d = 2 7·5 \cos 0$$

Latitude of Vertex = 51° 46′ tan. + 10·103548

Latitude of P = 51° 45′ tan. 10·103248

Having, then, the position whence the vessel starts, and the position of P on the arc, the Course and Distance are computed by Middle Latitude, or by Mercator = N 85° 13′ W. 300 miles.

In this way a succession of Points the whole way along the Arc, at intervals, say of 5° of Longitude, may be computed, when it is an object to lay down the entire track on the Chart,* (but see N.B. page 90). The track would be as follows:

^{*} To show how near the chords between the intermediate points on the track approximate to the true arc, refer to Case IV. page 96. Using only 7 of the points there calculated, at distances of about 20° of Longitude, the sum of the Distances by Rhumb = 4696½ miles, or only 8½ miles more than the computed distance on the Great Circle. In Case VII., where each chord is 5° of Longitude, and very carefully computed (in "Kerrigan's Navigation"), the total is 6109 miles, the true are being 6108 miles.

LONGITUDES. | 35 00 W. | 40 00 W. | 45 00 W. | 50 00 W. | 53 00 W. LAITTUDES. | 50 45 N. | 49 57 N. | 48 55 N. | 47 36 N. | 46 40 N.

The whole Course* and Distance by Rhumb is S 81° 22′ W., 1732 miles.

The Distance by Great Circle sailing is 1709 miles, or 23 miles shorter.

If in the previous Example the vessel is supposed to be leaving Cape Race, and it is required to find the Latitude of a place on the Arc in Longitude 46° 10′ W. (about a day's steam), we have

Longitude of Vertex Longitude of V = 19° 37½' W.

d = 26 32½ cos. 9°951634

Latitude of Vertex = 51 46 tan. + 10°103548

Latitude of P = 48 38 tan. 10°055182

From this, the Course and Distance from the given position off Cape Race, is computed by Mercator, or by Mid. Lat. sailing = N. 66° 52′ E. 300 miles.†

N.B.—1st. When the two given Places are on the same parallel of Latitude, the computation is simplified. In the first place, the Longitude of the Vertex is known at once, being exactly half-way between the two given Longitudes; and in the second place, in working the "Distance," the logarithm that usually represents the cosine of x (as 9.384960 in the Example, page 91,) represents the sine of $\frac{1}{2}$ the Distance. This might be exemplified in Case III., page 96. For Lat. vertex, see also, Case III., p. 96.

N.B.—2d. In all cases where the two places are at all near East and West of each other (i.e. in cases where the Vertex lies well within the arc forming the places), it is unnecessary in drawing the whole track on the Chart, to compute the Points on both sides the Vertex. Begin at the Place (A) of least Latitude, and compute for every 5° or so of Long, as far as the Vertex, and then the points on

^{*} Some remarks upon the "Course" on the Great Circle arc, will be offered towards the close of this Article.

[†] In this case, as in the day's run from Cape Clear, the Distance comes out 300 miles in both instances; but this is accidental. It is usual to take about 5° degrees of Longitude as made in a day, or 7° in high latitudes.

the other side of the Vertex, equidistant in Longitude from the Meridian of the Vertex, will have the same Latitudes as those already computed. Thus, if the Meridian of the Vertex is 27° E., and the Latitude of a point in 10° E. has been found to be 41° 48′ S., the Latitude of a point in Lat. 44° E. will be also 41° 48′ S. (See Case II., page 95.)

N.B.—3d. If the Latitude of the Vertex is known, we can find the Distance thus:

Sin. Distance =
$$\frac{\cos \text{ Lat. A} \times \cos \text{ Lat. B} \times \sin \text{ diff. Long.}}{\cos \text{ Lat. Vertex.}}$$

N.B.—4th. If, when the Lat. and Long. of the Vertex are known, a certain parallel of Latitude is given, and we want to know in what longitude it will be crossed, we first find d or the degrees of Longitude from the Vertex, thus: $\cos d = \frac{\text{Tan. of given Lat.}}{\text{Tan. of Lat. of Vertex}}$. Then d + Long. of Vertex, and d - Long. of Vertex, will be the Longitudes in which the arc cuts the given Parallel of Latitude.

N.B.—5th. Another formula for finding the Longitude of the Vertex, without finding the Distance, is as follows:

S = sum of Latitudes
$$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{Tan } x \frac{\sin D \times \cot L}{\sin S} (x \text{ being E. if B is East of A}) \\
 D = \text{ diff. of Latitudes} \\
 L = \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. Long.} \\
 M = \frac{1}{2} \text{ way Meridian}
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{Long. V} = \begin{cases}
 x + M, & \text{if both E. or both W.} \\
 x \sim M, & \text{if one E. and the other W.}; & \text{Long. V being of same name as the greater.}
 \end{array}$$

 $M = \frac{1}{2}$ sum of the Longitudes, when both E. or both W.; but $M = \frac{1}{2}$ diff. of the Longitudes if one E. and the other W.; M being of the same name as the greater. *Example*. From Rio Janeiro to Table Bay (see No. 5 of the List in page 97).

[When the Longitude of one of the places is near 180° E., it is better to turn it into W. Longitude, as in the route from off Cape Palliser (N. Zealand) to Cape Horn, page 103. The Long. of A (Cape P.) is 175° 18′ E., which = 184° 42′ W. Then

$$\frac{184^{\circ} 42' \text{ W.} + 67^{\circ} 16' \text{ W.}}{2} = 125^{\circ} 59' \text{ W.} = \text{M.}$$

The above method of finding the Longitude of the Vertex is a good check on the usual method. When found, the Latitude of the Vertex may be thus computed. Let d = diff. Long. between A (the place of least latitude) and the Vertex. Then

Cot. Lat.
$$V = \cos d \times \text{cotangent lat. A.}$$

Thus in the above case, $d = 43^{\circ} 9' + 8^{\circ} 31' = 51^{\circ} 40'$

$$d = 51^{\circ} 40' \cos .9.792557$$

Lat. A = 22 55 cot. 0.373907

Lat. of Vertex = 34 163 cot. 0.166464

(When A and B have the same latitude, d always = \frac{1}{4} \text{ diff. Long.})

Besides the case given in page 90, the following may be tracked
out on the Chart as useful; though the two last, as leading into too
high a latitude, will again be referred to, with others, under "Composite sailing."

I. St. Thomas's to the Lizard, or from 18° 20' N., 64° 54' W., to 49° 54' N., 5° 12' W. Distance 3402 miles. Vertex in Lat. 50° 50' S.; Long. 9° 26' E. Course and Distance by Rhumb = N. 56° 47', E. 3457 miles, or 55 in excess.

The arc, if continued, would reach to the Vertex above given, cutting Longitudes 0° 0′ and 5° 0′ E., in Lats. 50° 27′ and 50° 45′.

II. An Outward-bound Indiaman, not to touch at the Cape, after leaving the S.E. Trade, is in Lat. 27° S., and Long. 30° W., and wishes to get into the place for the other S.E. Trade, in 32° S., and

Long. 75° E. The Distance is 5245 miles. Vertex in Lat. 43° 4′ S.; Long. 26° 58′ E. (The direct Course by Rhumb is impracticable.)

Long.	30 00 W.	25 00	20 00	1°5 0′0	10 00	ŝ o∕o	δóο	Š 00 €.
LATS.	27 00 S.	29 58	82 32	34 48	36 45	38 25	39 48	40 55
Long.	10 00 W.	15 00	20 00	25 00	30 00	35 00	40 00	45 00
LATS.	41 48 S.	42 26	42 51	43 3	43 2	42 47	42 19	41 38
Long.	50 00 W.	55 00	60 00	65 00	70 00	75 00		
LATS.	40 46 S.	39 31	38 5	36 22	34 21	32 00		

If this arc is extended Easterly to the same latitude it started from (viz. 27°), it will reach to Long. 83° 56′ E., cutting Longitude 80° in 29° 20′ S. It may be continued to 90° E. of Vertex, which reaches the Equator in 116° 58′ E., cutting Longitudes 90°, 100°, 104°, 110°, 115°, in Lats. 22° 58′, 15° 15′, 11° 51′, 6° 28′, and 1° 50′ S.

III. Another useful track, somewhat similar to the preceding, is from Lat. 30° S., Long 19° W., to Lat. 30° S., Long. 79° E. (The latitudes being the same, the Long. of the Vertex is just $\frac{1}{2}$ way, or 30° E.; and Cot. Lat. of Vertex = cos. $\frac{1}{2}$ diff. Long. \div tan. Lat. A (or B), as at the end of N.B. 1st, page 93) = 41° 21′ S.

	ı				1 .	. •	
Long.	19 00 W.						10 00
LATS.	30 00	31 54	33 59	35 47	37 19	38 54	39 35
Long.				30 00			45 00
LATS.	40 22	40 55	41 15	41 21	41 15	40 55	40 22
Long.				65 00			79 00
LATS.	39 35	38 84	87 19	35 47	88 59	81 54	30 00

IV. From the Cape of Good Hope to Swan River, or from 34° 0′ S., 18° 20′ E., to 32° 3′ S., 115° 45′ E. Distance 4687 miles. Vertex in Lat. 44° 35½ S., and 65° 10′ E. By Rhumb, the Course and Distance is N. 88° 38′ E. 4906 miles; or 219 miles in excess.

	۱。,	0 /	0 /		0 /	۱ 。 ،	1
Long.	18 20 E.	21 00	25 00	30 00	35 00	40 00	45 00
LATS.	34 00 S.	35 16	37 00	38 52	40 26	41 44	42 47
Long.	50 00	55 00	60 00	65 10	70 00	75 00	80 00
LATS.	43 35	44 8	44 29	44 36	44 29	44 10	43 37
LONG.	85 00	90 00	95 00	100 00	105 00	100 10	115 45
LATS.	42 58	41 49	40 32	38 59	37 8	35 16	32 3

This Example is given in Riddle's Navigation." (See foot-note, page 92.)

V. Rio Janeiro to Table Bay, or from Lat. 22° 55′ S.; Long. 43° 9′ W., to Lat. 33° 53′ S.; Long. 18° 23′ E. Distance 3266 miles. Vertex in Lat. 34° 17′ S., Long. 8° 31′ E. Course and Distance by Rhumb, S. 78° 31½′ E. 3306 miles; or 40 miles in excess.

VI. Cape to Bass's Straits, or from Lat. 34° 22' S.; Long. 18° 26' E., to Lat. 39° 30' S.; Long. 143° 56' E. Distance 5437 miles. Vertex in Lat. 58° 46' S.; 83° 56' E. Course and Distance by Rhumb S. 87° 4' E. 6024 miles; or 587 miles in excess.

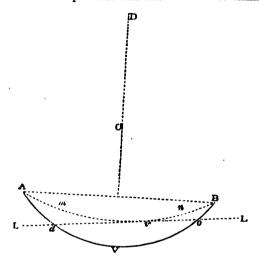
Long.	îs ź6 E.	23 56	3 0 00	35 00	40 ó0	4 5 00	50 óo;
LATS.	34 22	39 30	44 9	47 17	49 54	52 3	53 50
Long.	55 00 E.	60 00	65 00	70 00	75 00	80 00	8 5 56
LATS.	55 17	56 26	57 20	58 00	58 27	58 42	58 46
Long.	87 52 E.	92 52	97 52	102 52	107 52	112 52	117 52
LATS.	58 42	58 27	58 00	57 20	56 26	55 17	58 50
Long.	122 52 E.	127 52	132 52	137 52	143 56		
LATS.	52 3	49 54	47 17	44 9	39 30		

VII. Port Jackson to Valparaiso, or from Lat. 33° 52' S.; Long. 151° 16' E., to Lat. 33° 1' S.; Long. 71° 52' W. Distance 6108 miles. Vertex in Lat. 60° 54' S., and Long. 140° 40' W. Course and Distance by Rhumb, N. 89° 34' E. 6853 miles; or 745 miles in excess.

Long.	151 16 E.	156 16	161 16	166 16	171 16	176 16
LATS.	33 52 8.	39 8	43 33	47 12	50 13	52 42
Long.	178 44 W.	173 44	168 44	163 44	153 44	140 40
LATS.	54 45 8.	56 25	57 46	58 50	60 16	60 54
Long.	128 44 W.	113 44	108 44	103 44	98 44	93 44
LATS.	60 22 8.	58 2	56 45	55 9	53 12	50 49
Long.	88 44 W.	83 44	78 44	73 44	71 52	
LATS.	47 56 S.	44 26	40 13	35 9	33 1	

"COMPOSITE" GREAT CIRCLE SAILING.

Though sailing on a true Great Circle cannot be carried out practically with more than 3 or 4 per cent. advantage in distance, over Rhumb sailing (owing to its reaching into too high latitudes), there is an intermediate method, which, though not on a true Great Circle arc, may yet in some instances gain 9 or 10 per cent. on the distance by Rhumb sailing. Practically, therefore, this "Composite" sailing is of more importance than true Great Circle Sailing.



Let the figure represent two places A and B. The true Great Circle track as shown on a Mercator's Chart, would be A, a, V, o, B; but if it is determined not to go to a higher latitude than L, the following is the *usual* method. Find the Lat. and Longitude of the Vertex V (either by calculation, or Towson's tables approximately), and calculate the Longitudes of a and o* (or where the arc of the

^{*} The Formula is as follows:

Let P be the point whose Longitude is required; and d = diff. Long. between P and the meridian of the Vertex. Then

 $[\]cos d = \tan a$ given Latitude \div tan. Lat. of Vertex. From this we find a and a, being d + Long. of Vertex, and $d \sim \text{Long.}$ of Vertex.

Great Circle cuts the given parallel). Then steer to a, and run down the longitude a o on the given parallel, and from o on the Great Circle arc to B. This does not require any diagram to be drawn on a chart; but there is another method of "Composite" sailing, described by the Rev. G. Fisher, in Riddle's Navigation, which is a great improvement on the usual method, both as regards distance, and time spent in very high latitudes. It requires a chart. but an outline one of 15° to 1 inch, and only between the parallels of 30° and 60°, such as is given at the end of this paper is sufficient. if carefully drawn. Join AB, and bisect the line. From the point of bisection raise a perpendicular in the direction of D; and on this line, find a place (by trial) where, if one point of a pair of compasses is placed, the other point will not only touch both A and B, but also just graze the parallel of Latitude determined on (which in the figure it does at v). Along this Composite track A m v n B, dot off points at intervals of 5°, or even 10° of Longitude. Write down the Latitude and Longitude of each point, as taken from the chart, and compute the Course and Distance between each, by Mercator or by Middle latitude sailing: or it will be sufficient to calculate the Course and Distance for what may do for one day's run only; as, if the ship gets off the track, it is better to draw a new one.

In the preceding figure, the line Amon B will nearly represent the Composite track by Fisher's method from the Cape to Hobart Town; or from Lat. 34° 22′ S., and Long. 18° 26′ E.; to Lat. 42° 54′ S. and Long. 147° 26′ E.; the maximum Latitude being 50° S. Mr. Fisher, with a Chart of 18° of Longitude to 1 inch, and intervals of 10° of Longitude, makes it 5579 miles. With a Chart on the same scale, but very carefully drawn,* and 5° intervals (the Vertex was in 93° 45′ E.), the distance came out 5577 miles. With an ordinary outline Chart, on a scale of 6° to 1 inch, and 5° intervals, it came out 5581 miles. By Spherical Trigonometry, with the method shown in page 90, the Distance, on the arc of the Great Circle going to 61° 58′ S. is 5387 miles. The distance by Rhumb is 6052 miles; so that this Composite track saves 475 miles on the Rhumb, though itself 190 miles more than the true Great Circle track.

^{*} A chart on a small scale has this advantage, that the arc can be described with an ordinary pair of compasses and lengthening bar. A large Chart requires beam compasses. See the end of this article, as to the matter of charts.

The following will exhibit the respective Latitudes and Longitudes on the small chart, of the Composite track by Mr. Fisher's method.

S. Lat.	E. Long.	Courses.	Dist.	
34 22 38 00 40 00 41 30 43 00 44 20 45 30 47 20 48 40 49 10 49 30 49 45 50 00		8. 55 33½ E. ,, 62 46 ,, ,, 68 24 ,, ,, 67 56 ,, ,, 71 54 ,, ,, 73 56 ,, ,, 76 17½ ,, ,, 78 48 ,, ,, 78 39½ ,, ,, 81 21½ ,, ,, 84 9½ ,, ,, 85 34½ ,, ,, 87 2½ ,, ,, 88 1 ,, m A to Vertex = m Vertex to B =		From A to lat. When once the places from A to the Vertex have been taken out, and Courses and Distances computed the track from the Vertex to B is as good as given: for Longitudes at equal distances each side of the Vertex, have the same Latitudes

Now, to compare the distance by this Composite, with that by the usual method of Composite Great Circle Sailing. It is evident, by reference to the figure, that the distance by the usual Composite method (A, a, v, o, B), exceeds the true Great Circle arc, as the distance a, o, by Parallel sailing, exceeds the Creat Circle arc a, V, o. We have then first to find the Longitudes in which a and o are situated,* which in the above Example, are 36° 28' E., and 137° 42' E.;

^{*} As shown in the foot-note, 3 pages back.

Given Lat. = 50°00′ tan. = 0.076186
Lat. of V = 61 58′ tan. = 0.273716

d = 50 37 E. cos.

Long. V = 87′ 5 E.

Diff. = 36 28 E. = a
Sum. = 137′ 42 E. = o

Diff. Long. = 101 14 or twice d.

the distance a, v, o being 101° 14' of Longitude, which in the parallel of $50^{\circ} = 3904$ miles. The Great Circle arc a, V, o is calculated (as shown 8 pages further back) 3575 miles.* The excess therefore by Parallel sailing this portion, is 329 miles. The entire Great Circle distance from A to B is 5387 miles; and hence the distance by the usual Composite is 5387 + 329 = 5716 miles; whilst, as just shown, the distance by Mr. Fisher's method is 5577 miles, or a gain of 139 miles on the usual method, with the advantage (not an inconsiderable one) of having much less distance to run in an iceberg latitude.

Take another Example. A vessel coming out of Bass's Straits, bound round Cape Horn; or from 40° 30′ S., and 148° 0′ E., to

56° 10′ S., and 67° 10′ W. true Great Circle sailing, the Distance would be 4730 miles. and the Vertex in 75° 34½' S., and 134° 414′ W. The parallel of 60° S., supposing this to be fixed as the maximum Latitude, would be crossed in Longitudes 161° 46' E., and 71° 9' W.; giving 127° 4' of Parallel sailing = 3812 miles. or 621 miles more than the arc of the Great Circle between the above Longitudes: making a total distance of 5351 miles. But by Mr. Fisher's method (the track of which is given in the margin), the distance is 5151 miles, or 200 miles gained.

Longs.	Lats.	Dist.	i
• ,	. ,		1
148 00 E	. 40 30 8.	1	l
155 00 ,,	44 15 ,,	383-1	h
165 00 ,	48 20 ,,	481.3	11
175 00 ,	51 30 ,,	430-4	2128
175 00 W	. 54 00 ,,	392-8	11
162 44 ,	56 10 ,,	440.7	IJ
155 00 ,,	57 80 ,,	266-1	6
145 00 ,,	58 30 ,,	323.7	11
135 '00 ,	59 10 ,,	313.0	1511
125 00 ,,	59 40 ,,	306.5	11
115 00 ,,	60 00 ,,	302-1	Į)
	ts. to Vertex : x to C. Horn :		
			·
	Total	5151-1	

(The places in the margin were taken from a Chart similar to that at the end of this paper, and gave a vertex in Long. 115° 0′ W.)

Again, a vessel coming out of Cook's Straits (N. Zealand), bound round Cape Horn, or from 42° 10′ S., and 175° 18′ E., to 56° 10′ S., and 67° 16′ W. By true Great Circle sailing the Distance would be 4106 miles, and the Vertex in 66° 48½′ S., and 117° 32′ W. The parallel of 57° S., supposing this to be fixed as the maximum

Long.	Lat.	Dist.					
• ,	. ,						
175 18 E	42 10 8.						
175 00 V	45 15 ,,	457.3					
165 00 ,	48 4 ,,	447.2					
155 00 ,	50 40 ,,	420.6					
145 00 ,	52 80 ,,	388.6					
135 00 ,	54 00 ,,	270-1					
125 00 ,	55 15 ,,	355.4					
115 00 ,	56 6 ,,	342-2					
105 00 ,	56 30 ,,	333.6					
95 00 ,	1	330-1					
87 00 ,	57 00 ,,	262-6					
From C. S	s. to Vertex =	3707.8					
87 0 W	. 57 00 ,,						
79 0,	1	262.6					
69 0,		330-1					
67 16 ,	56 10 ,,	61.0					
From Verte	From Vertex to C. Horn =						
	Total	4361.5					

Latitude, would be crossed in Longitudes 166° 15¼' W., and 68° 48¾' W., giving 97° 26½' of Parallel Sailing, = 3184 miles, or 284 more than the arc of the Great Circle between the above Longitudes; making a total distance of 4490 miles. But by Mr. Fisher's method, the track of which is given above, the distance is 4361 miles, or 200 miles gained, with much less high latitude sailing. The places in the Table were taken from a Chart similar to that at the end of this paper, and gave a Vertex in Longitude 87° 0′ W.

If the maximum Latitude fixed upon, does not differ much from that reached by the Great Circle arc, there will not be so much difference between the usual Composite, and Mr. Fisher's method. For example, a vessel from Port Jackson to Valparaiso, as given in Case VII., page 97. If the object is just to clear the S. end of New Zealand, the curve by Mr. Fisher's method, as shown in the Chart at the end of this paper, will go to 58‡° S. The Distance is 6143

L	ong.	Ls	it.	Dist.
•	, 	-	,	
151	16 E.	_	2 8.	
155	00 ,,	38 5	io "	348.3
160	00 ,,	42 5	io ,,	330.3
165	00 ,,	46	5 ,,	289.6
170	00 ,,	48 4	15 ,,	258.4
175	00 ,,	50 t	55 ,,	233-1
180	00 ,,	52 4	ю,,	213-2
175	00 W.	54 1	10 ,,	200-2
170	00 ,,	55 5	25 ,,	188-5
165	00 ,,	56 2	25 ,,	178-5
160	00 ,,	57	10 ,	170-4
155	00 ,,	57 4	£0 ,,	164.3
150	00 ,,	58	00 ,	160.9
145	00 ,	58	10 ,	158-9
141	00 ,,	58	l5 ,,	126.5
Fre	m P. J.	i to Vei	tex =	3021-1
Fron	n Vert.	to Lat.	33° 52′	3021-1
	7	lo Valı	araiso	100.7
			Total	6142.9

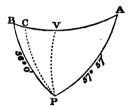
miles, and the track will be, as shown in the margin; the Distance being 6143 miles, or only 7 less than the usual Composite route, which would cross the parallel of 58° 15′ S., in Longitudes 114° 45′ W., and 166° 35′ W. (The distance on this parallel is 1636½ miles by Parallel Sailing, and 1595½ by Great Circle Sailing.)

The Great Circle "Course."

It has been observed before, that theoretically speaking, the Course should be changed every instant; but practically, the Course is calculated for 300 miles or so in advance, by Rhumb sailing, and if the ship makes good what is expected, the Rhumb line will not appreciably differ from the Great Circle arc.

However, if it really is required to know the angle of Course at the

very commencement (and practically it will hold good for 200 miles or so), it must be calculated by Spherical Trigonometry. In the accompanying figure (which applies to Case IV., page 96), let B represent the Cape, and A Swan River. Then P will be the Pole, BA will be the Distance, and the sides BP, AP,



the Co-latitudes of B and A. These sides represent the Meridians of the Earth; and the 'angles of Position' at B and A, represent each the angle between the Meridian, and the ship's track, or in other words the "Course." It is seen at once that a vessel from B changes this angle every moment, as when she reaches C, the angle (or Course) will be greater than at B, and when she reaches V or the vertex, the angle AVP becomes a right angle, and the course is for the moment due East. (Using cos. Lat. for sin. Colat., we have)

Sin.
$$\angle A = \frac{\text{Sin. Diff. Long.}}{\text{Sin. Distance}} \times \text{Cosin. Lat. B.}$$

Sin.
$$\angle$$
 B = $\frac{\text{Sin. Diff. Long.}}{\text{Sin. Distance}} \times \text{Cosin. Lat. A.}$

N.B. The angle at the place of greatest Latitude, is always greater than the other.

The above Formula is so far convenient, that with it we can find the value of one angle, without having to find both. This is not the case with the following Formula, which, however, has the advantage of being independent of the *Distance*; for any error in the Distance affects the "angles of position." (x is $\frac{1}{2}$ the sum, and y $\frac{1}{2}$ the diff. the angles.)

Tan,
$$x = \frac{\text{Cos. } \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. Lat.}}{\text{Sin. } \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum Lats.}} \times \text{Cot. } \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. Long.}$$

Tan.
$$y = \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. Lat.}}{\cos \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum of Lats.}} \times \cot \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. Long.}$$

Then x + y =Greater angle (always at place of greatest Latitude).

$$x - y =$$
 Lesser angle (always at place of least Latitude).

Taking the Example in pages 90, 91; Required the Great Circle "Initial Course" from off Cape Race to off Cape Clear, and also that from Cape Clear towards Cape Race; or at A and at B.

By Formula I.

By Formula II.

The slight difference in the result is owing to a slight error in the "Distance," affecting Formula I.

Take again the Great Circle track from the Cape to Swan River as given in Case IV. p. 96,

Diff.

57 91 angle at A

By Formula I.

```
Diff. Long. 97° 25' sin.
                                  9.296351
          Distance 78 7 sin. - 9.990591
                                  0.005761
                                                                            0.005761
     Lat. A = 82° 8'
                                                           34° 0'
                          cos. + 9 928183
                                                 Lat. R =
                                                                       cos. 9 918574
Angle at B = S, 59 114 E. sin.
                                                Ang. A = 8, 57° 9' W. sin. 9:924334
                                 By Formula II.
    1 diff. Lat. = 0° 581' cos.
                                 9-999937
                                                                   sin. 8:230861
   $ sum. Lats. = 33° 1\frac{1}{2} sin. - 9.736400
                                                                        9-923386
                                                                       8 3 7475
                                 0.263537
   diff. Long. = 48° 421' cot. + 9.943625
                                                                       9.943625
              x = 58 101 \tan.
                                 0.207162
                                                        y = 1° 1½ tan. 8.251100
              y = 1 1
          Sum.
                  59 11% angle at B
```

It will be found that a vessel sailing 300 miles in the 24 hours, exactly on the "Initial Course," would, at the end of that time, be some 10 or 12 miles out of the Great Circle track, and that it would be better to shape her course larger than the "Initial Course," by about 2°, for the above distance. Practically, no vessel could be sure of steering to 1°, but it may be as well to exemplify the above statements; and it may be incidentally observed, that these angles, and the distance, require to be very accurately taken out, in finding the Latitude by double altitudes of the Sun, or by the simultaneous altitudes of two Stars. In these cases we have Right Ascensions instead of Longitudes, and Declinations instead of Latitudes.

A vessel off Cape Race, bound to Cape Clear (taking the Latitudes and Longitudes given in preceding pages), if she steered N. 66° 52′ E., for 300 miles, would reach Latitude 48° 38′ N., and Longitude 46° 10′ W., a point exactly on the Great Circle track; whereas, had she sailed 300 miles on the "Initial Course," N. 64° 23½′ E., she would have found herself in Lat. 48° 49¾′ N., and Longitude 46° 17¼′ W.; being out of the Great Circle track 12 miles of Lat. and 7½′ of Long. Again, from off Cape Clear, if she sailed 300 miles N. 85° 13′ W., she would reach Lat. 51° 45′ N., and Long 17° 30′ N., a place exactly on the Great Circle track; whereas, with the "Initial Course,"

 $82^{\circ} 4\frac{1}{4}'$, she would be in Lat. $52^{\circ} 1\frac{1}{4}'$ N., and Long. $17^{\circ} 29\frac{1}{4}'$ W., or off the track $16\frac{1}{4}$ miles of Lat., and 1' of Long.

In Case VII., eleven pages back, from the Cape to Swan River, the "Initial Course" is S. 59° 11¾′ E. This, after 300 miles, would bring the vessel to Lat. 36° 34′ S., and Long. 23° 36′ E. (which is off the track); whereas, a Course of S. 60° 49′ E., for 300 miles, would bring her to Lat. 36° 26′ S., and Long. 23° 40′ E., a place exactly on the Great Circle track.

Again, in Case VI., ten pages back, the "Initial Course" is S. 55° 5′ W., from the place of least Latitude. This, after 300 miles, would bring the ship to Lat. 29° 52′ S., and Long. 25° 20′ W., which is off the Great Circle track. Had the vessel sailed the 300 miles on a S. 56° 14′ E. Course, she would have been exactly on the track, in 29° 47′ S., and 25° 16′ W.

Again, in Case VII., ten pages back, the "Initial Course" at each end (for the latitudes are the same) is 60° 5½′. This, from the place farthest to the Westward, would, at the end of 300 miles, place the ship in Lat. 32° 29′ S., and Long. 13° 56′ W., which is off the Great Circle track. Had the vessel sailed the 300 miles on a S. 61° 28′ E. Course, she would have been exactly on the track, in 32° 24′ S., and 13° 51′ W.

Mr. Saxby's "Spherograph" will be found useful in practice, for taking out the "Course" between the ship's present place and any other to which she is bound. It is a mere matter of inspection, not requiring any knowledge of the "Vertex," or use of scales and dividers. It gives the "Initial Course," and therefore, theoretically, is only good for the moment; but practically, as has been shown, by increasing the "Initial Course" about 2°, a run of 300 miles will find the vessel almost exactly on the true Great Circle track. This ingenious instrument, however, does not give the requisite data for "Composite" Great Circle Sailing, which, after all, is of more consequence than "True" Great Circle sailing, for the latter cannot be carried out in those high latitudes, where it would be most effective in shortening the Distance.

Towson's Tables also are useful for ascertaining (approximately) the Vertex, and thence the Distance, and the "Initial Course."

^{*} See the Articles "Spherograph" and "Great Circle Sailing," in Knight's English Encyclopædia [Arts and Sciences].

On the construction of a Chart.

A blank Mercator's Chart, between the parallels of 30° and 60° (which will do for either N. or S. Latitude), and embracing 150° of Longitude (which will do for either Hemisphere), will be found useful in laying down the 'Composite' Great Circle track, either by the usual, or by Mr. Fisher's method. The scale of 15°, (or 900') of Longitude, to 1 inch, will, if carefully constructed, fully answer the purpose. Such a map is shown in the Plate p. 110.

For the above Scale, the following Table is applicable, and will enable any one to construct the Chart. The horizontal line of Longitude, either at foot or above, should first be drawn = 10 inches, or 150°. Then at each end raise or let fall perpendiculars of Latitude, equal in length to 88 thirtieths, or 146½ fiftieths of an inch; according to the Plotting scale used.* The value of each degree may then be plotted off from the Table annexed.

Column II. shows the "Meridional Parts," in ', to every degree or Latitude. III. The "differences" to each degree; and IV. their value on thirtieths of an inch. Col. V. shows the progressive sums of Col. IV., so that with a Plotting-scale of 30 to an inch, each degree, from 30° to 60°, may be marked, without moving the Scale from the paper; for example, Lat. 40° will be 24.5 thirtieths from the upper horizontal line of Longitude. Columns VII. and VIII. are for a Plotting-scale of 50 to 1 inch. As to the Longitudes, those on the upper line may be marked from 0° to 150° E., which will suit the tracks from 18° W. of the Cape of Good Hope, to Australia; and the lower line may be marked from 145° E., to 65° W., which will suit the tracks from Australia and N. Zealand, to the west coast of S. America, or Cape Horn.

^{*} $\frac{88}{30} = \frac{146\frac{1}{4}}{50} = 2.939$ inches, for the *depth* of the Chart.

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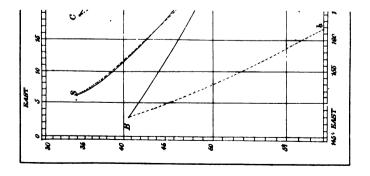


TABLE FOR MERCATOR'S CHART.

Scale 15° Long. to 1 inch.

ı.	п.	III.	IV.	v.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.
Lats.	Mer.Prts.	Diff	Thir	tieths.	Lats.	Fif	ieths.	Lats.
30°	1888-4							
31°	1958-0	69.6	2.3	2.3	31*	3.9	3.9	31°
32*	2028-4	70.4	2.4	4.7	32°	3.9	7.8	32*
33°	2099.5	71.1	2.4	7.1	33°	3.9	11.7	33°
34°	2171.5	72.0	2.4	9.5	34°	4.0	15.7	34*
85°	2244.3	72.8	2.4	11.9	35°	4.0	19.7	35°
36°	2318-0	73.7	2.5	14.4	36°	4.1	23.8	36°
37°	2392-6	74.6	2.5	16.9	87*	4.1	27-9	37°
38°	2468-3	75.7	2.5	19.4	38°	4.2	32·1	38°
39°	2544.9	76.6	2.5	21.9	39°	4.8	35· 4	39*
40°	2622.7	77.8	2.6	24.5	40°	4.3	40.7	40°
41*	2701-6	78.9	2.6	27·1	41°	4.4	45.1	41°
42°	2781-7	80.1	2.7	29.8	42*	4.5	49.6	42°
43°	2863-1	81.4	2.7	32.5	43°	4.5	54.1	43°
44°	2945.8	82.7	2.8	35.3	44°	4.6	58.7	44°
45°	3029-9	84.1	2.8	38·1	45°	4.7	63.4	45°
46°	3115.5	85.6	2.8	40.9	46°	4.8	68.2	46°
47°	3202.7	87.2	2.9	43.8	47*	4.8	73.0	47*
48*	3291.5	888	3.0	46.8	48°	4.9	77-9	48°
49°	3382-1	90.6	3.0	49.8	49°	5.0	82.9	49°
50°	3474.5	92.4	3-1	52.9	50°	5.1	88.0	50°
51°	3568.8	94.3	3.2	56-1	51*	5.2	93.2	51*
52°	3665.2	96.4	3.2	59.3	52°	5.4	98.6	52°
53°	3763.8	98-6	3.3	62-6	58°	5.5	104-1	53°
54°	3864.6	100-8	3.4	66.0	54°	5.6	109.7	54°
55°	3968-0	103-4	3.2	69-5	55°	5.7	115.4	55°
56°	4073-9	105-9	3.5	73.0	56°	5.9	121.3	56°
57°	4182.6	108.7	3.6	76· 6	57°	6.0	127.3	57°
58°	4182.6 4294.3	111-7	3.7	80.3	58°	6.2	133.5	58°
59°		114.8	8.8	84.1	59°	6.4	139-9	59°
60°	4409.1	118.3	3.9	88.0	60°	6.6	146.5	60"
00	4527.4		• •			'		

Explanation of Chart.

This Chart is constructed on a scale of 15° of Longitude to 1 inch, according to the Table in page 109; and when once the degree distances of Latitude are laid down on a strip of paper, from that Table, any number of similar charts (blank) may be quickly and correctly constructed. (See footnote, page 99.)

The black line from C to T, is the Composite route, by Mr. Fisher's method, from the Cape of Good Hope to Hobart Town, with a maximum latitude of 50° South, (p. 100). The dotted line shews the true Great Circle track as far as 60° S. By the usual Composite route, with a maximum latitude of 50° S. this would be followed as far as 36° 28′ E.; the vessel would now run down the parallel of 50° to 137° 42′ E., (footnote, page 100,) and then take up the Great Circle route again.

The black line from B to H, is the Composite route by Mr. Fisher's method, from Bass's Straits to Cape Horn, with a maximum latitude of 60° S. (p. 101). The dotted line shews the true Great Circle track as far as 60° S. By the usual Composite route, with a maximum latitude of 60° S. this would be followed as far as 161° 46′ E. and the parallel of 60° run down as far as 71° 10′ W. (i.e. from b to d), and then the remainder by Great Circle.

The black line from P to H is the Composite route by Mr. Fisher's method, from the outside of Cook's Straits to Cape Horn, with a maximum latitude of 57° S. (p. 102). The dotted line shows the Great Circle track; and where it crosses the parallel of 57° S. (166° 15' W.) would be the place where, by the usual Composite route, a vessel would run down the parallel of 57° S. as far as 68° 49' W. or from p to h.

The black line from S to V, is the Composite route by Mr. Fisher's method, from Port Jackson to Valparaiso, with a maximum latitude of 58½° S. (p. 103 and p. 97). The dotted line shews the Great Circle track; and where it crosses the parallel of 58½° S. (114½° W.) would be the place where, by the usual Composite route, a vessel would run down the parallel of 58½° S. as far as 166° 25′ W. or from s to v.

APPENDIX E.

Variation of the Compass.

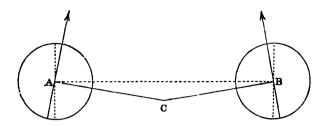
In obtaining the error of the Compass from an observation of the Sun's Amplitude or Azimuth (pages 42 and 50), it is to be remembered that this error includes not only the *variation*, properly so called, due to the Earth's magnetism,—but the *deviation* due to the iron in the ship.

This deviation varies according to the direction of the ship's head; so that if, after finding the whole error by Amplitude or Azimuth, the same course is kept, it does not matter to know how much of this error is due to the Earth's, and how much to the ship's magnetism. But if the course be altered before another observation can be taken, the application of the whole error (as if it were all due to variation) to the ship's new course, would give rise to considerable error in a vessel of war, or one built of iron.

The general effect of the iron in the ship is, in North magnetic latitude,* to draw the N. point of the needle to the East, when the ship's head is towards the East; and to the West, when the ship's head is towards the West. When the ship's head is N. or S. (or nearly so—for it differs in different ships (and even in the same ship, at different times), there is no deviation.

Let A and B represent two places due East and West of each other. A ship at A, with her head towards B, will, in N. magnetic latitude, have the N. point of her compass drawn Eastward, say 1 Point. In this case, supposing terrestrial variation not to exist, or else to be eliminated, the "correct magnetic" bearing of B, will be E. by N. Again at B, with her head towards the West, the N. end of the needle will be drawn towards the West, by 1 Point, and the

^{*} The magnetic Equator, or line of no "dip," does not quite coincide with the terrestrial Equator.



bearing of A will be W. by N. If, not knowing the effect of this local deviation, the vessel were to steer East from A (or West from B), she would be in danger of running on the reef C.

Deviation is allowed for in the same way as variation; i.e. the observer is supposed to stand in the centre of the Compass, and to allow to the left if the variation or deviation is Westerly, and to the right if Easterly.

Example. Let the Compass bearing be N. 88° W. The variation 24° W.; and deviation 8° W. Required the true bearing.

by Compass, N. 88° W. Variation 24° W. + 24

N. 112° W. = S. 68° W. or "correct magnetic."

Deviation 8° W. — 8°

8.60 W. "True" bearing.

The variation and deviation being, in this case, the same (both Westerly), the result is the same as if their sum were applied to the left of the Compass bearing, or N. 120° W.

Suppose a vessel steering by compass S. 85° E., finds by an Amplitude or Azimuth, that her compass is out 16° W., and that her true course is N. 79° E. As long as she keeps this course, there is no need to know how much is due to deviation; but should she alter her course, say by Compass to N. 41° W., the want of this knowledge might, if she had much iron about her, lead to grave consequences. Suppose, as is often the case, the error of 16° W. were considered to be all due to variation, it would now be supposed she was steering true N. 57° W.; but had the deviation been 6° E., when her head was S. 85° E., and 4° W. when her head was N. 41° W., her true present course would be N. 67° W. The variation would be the

same (22° W.) on both courses; but on the Easterly course the total error = 22° — 6°, and on the N. Westerly course the error = 22° + 4°.

The deviation for every point of the Compass at which the ship's head may be pointed, should be entered in a Table. This Deviation is obtained when the vessel is near the shore, and the Variation known, by swinging the ship's head to every point of the Compass, and comparing the bearing of the ship's compass from a place on shore, with the bearing of the shore station from the ship, as read by the ship's compass. The error, after allowing for Variation in both compasses, is the Deviation.

Since the greatest Deviation is generally greatest when the ship's head is East or West,* it is usual when it is required at sea, to turn the vessels head to the East and West in quick succession, taking an observation of the sun for Amplitude or Azimuth at each instant. Both the Variation and maximum Deviation are then obtained; the former being half the sum of the errors of the Compass, and the latter, half the difference. Thus, if the whole error, when the ship's head is East, is 16° W., and when her head is West,

ĸ

28° W.; the Variation = $\frac{28+16}{2}$ = 22° W. The maximum Devia-

tion = $\frac{28^{\circ} - 16}{2}$ = 6°; which being found, the Deviation at intermediate Points is easily calculated, as it varies according to the sines of the Points, the maximum Deviation being considered the hypothenuse of the triangle. Thus, in the above Example, where the maximum Deviation or hypothenuse = 360′, and we require the Deviation at 2 Points (i.e. N.N.E.—N.N.W.—S.S.E.—S.S.W.), we have sin. 90°: 360′:: sin. 22° 30′: 138′ (or 2°18′).

Astronomical Memoranda.

In looking at a Celestial Globe, it will be observed that the Signs of the zodiac do not agree with the Constellations of the same name; for instance the Sign 8 (Taurus) marked on the Ecliptic is

^{*} It does not always follow that the maximum deviation is exactly at the E. and W. points, nor that if it is at a maximum at E, it is also at a maximum at W. In the above example, the two maxima may be 6½° and 5½°, the sum being 12° as before.

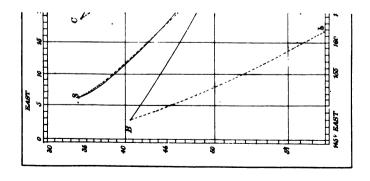


TABLE FOR MERCATOR'S CHART.

Scale 15° Long. to 1 inch.

I.	II.	III.	IV.	v.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.
Lats.	Mer. Prts.	Diff.	Thir	tieths.	Lats.	Fift	ieths.	Lats.
30°	1888-4							
31°	1958-0	69.6	2.3	2.3	31°	3.9	3.9	31°
32°	2028-4	70· 4	2.4	4.7	32°	3.9	7.8	32"
33°	2099-5	71-1	2.4	7.1	38°	3.9	11.7	33°
34°	2171.5	72.0	2.4	9.5	34°	4.0	15.7	34*
35°	2244.3	72 ·8	2.4	11.9	35*	4.0	19.7	35°
36°	2318-0	73.7	2.5	14.4	36°	4.1	23.8	36*
37°	2392.6	74.6	2.5	16.9	87°	4.1	27-9	37°
38°	2468-3	75-7	2.5	19.4	38°	4.2	32·1	38°
39°	2544.9	76.6	2.5	21.9	39°	4.3	35.4	39*
40°	2622.7	77.8	2.6	24.5	40°	4.3	40.7	40°
41°	2701.6	78.9	2.6	27·1	41°	4.4	45.1	41°
42°	2781-7	80.1	2.7	29.8	42*	4.5	49.6	42°
43°	2863-1	81.4	2.7	32.5	43°	4.5	54.1	43°
44°	2945.8	82.7	2.8	35.3	44°	4.6	58.7	44°
45°	3029-9	84.1	2.8	38-1	45°	4.7	63· 4	45°
46°	3115.5	85.6	2.8	40.9	46°	4.8	68.2	46*
47°	3202.7	87.2	2.9	43.8	47°	4.8	73.0	47*
48°	3291.5	88-8	3.0	46.8	48°	4.9	77:9	48°
49°	3382-1	90.6	3.0	49.8	49°	5.0	82.9	49*
50°	3474.5	92.4	3.1	52.9	50°	5.1	88.0	50°
51°	3568.8	94.3	3.2	56-1	51°	5.2	93.2	51*
52°		96.4	3.2	59.3	52°	5.4	98.6	52°
52°	3665.2	98.6	3.3	62.6	58°	5.5	104-1	58°
54°	3763-8	100.8	3.4	66.0	54°	5.6	109.7	54°
55°	3864.6	103.4	3.5	69.5	55°	5.7	115.4	55°
	3968-0	105*9	3.5	73.0	56°	5.9	121.8	56*
56°	4073.9	108.7	3.6	76.6	57°	6.0	127.3	57°
57°	4182.6	111.7	3.7	80.3	58°	6.2	133.5	58°
58°	4294.3	114.8	8.8	84.1	59°	6.4	139.9	59°
59°	4409.1	118.3	3.9	88.0	60°	6.6	146.5	
60°	4527.4	110.9	3.8	00.0	ου	0.0	140.0	60°

9.8565 s. in 1 Mean Solar hour. This is called the "ACCELERATION" of Sidereal on Mean Solar time, and is added to Mean Solar, to obtain Sidereal time.

TABLE II .- " Acceleration."

H	M	8	M	ន	M	s	ន	Dec.	ន	Dec.
	0	9.86	1	0.16	31	5.09	1	.00	31	.08
2	0	19.71	2	0.33	32	5.26	2	-00	32	-09
3	0	29.57	3	0.49	33	5.42	3	·01	33	-09
4	0	39.43	4	0.66	34	5.58	4	·01	34	-09
5	0	49.28	5	0.82	35	5.75	5	-01	35	.10
6	0	59·14	6	0.99	36	5.91	6	-02	36	-10
7	1	9.00	7	1.15	37	6.08	7	-02	37	-10
8	1	18.85	8	1.31	38	6.24	8	-02	38	-10
9	1	28.71	9	1.48	39	6.41	9	.02	39	-11
10	1	38-56	10	1.64	40	6.57	10	.03	40	-11
11	1	48.42	11	1.81	41	6.73	11	.03	41	-11
12	1	58.28	12	1.97	42	6.90	12	.03	42	-12
13	2	8.13	13	2.13	43	7.06	13	·04	43	-12
14		17 .99	14	2.30	44	7.23	14	-04	44	·12
15	2	27.85	15	2.46	45	7.39	15	·04	45	.12
16	2	87.70	16	2.63	46	7.56	16	·04	46	.18
17	2	47.56	17	2.79	47	7.72	17	·05	47	.13
18	2	57:41	18	2.96	48	7.89	18	-05	48	-13
19	3	7 · 27	19	3.12	49	8.05	19	.05	49	.13
20	3	17.13	20	3.29	50	8-21	20	-05	50	-14
21	3	26.99	21	3.45	51	8.38	21	·06	51	114
22	3	36.84	22	3.61	52	8.54	22	-06	52	-14
23	3	46.70	23	3.78	53	8.71	23	-06	53	·15
24	3	56·56	24	3-94	5 4	8-87	24	-07	54	-15
	1		25	4.11	55	9.04	25	-07	55	-15
			26	4 · 27	56	9.20	26	-07	56	-15
			27	4.43	57	9.36	27	•07	57	-16
		i	28	4.60	58	9.53	28	-08	58	.16
			29	4.76	59	9-69	29	-08	59	.16
			30	4.93	60	9.86	80	∙08	60	.16

Thus xiv.h. 12 m. 16 s. Mean Solar Time = xiv.h. 12 m. 16 s. *plus* 2 m. 20·0, = xiv.h. 14 m. 36 s. Sidereal Time.

Equation of Time, and "Mean" and "Apparent" Time.

Since the Sun varies its speed in different parts of its Orbit, and also moves on the Ecliptic at an angle to the Equinoctial (27° 231'), the length of an "Apparent" Solar day, (or the interval between two successive transits of the Sun,) fluctuates slightly. As no watch could be made to keep this irregularity, a Mean Solar day is adopted as a constant interval of time, and is the mean or average of all the Apparent Solar days in the year. An imaginary Sun called the "Mean Sun" is conceived to move uniformly and in the Equator. with the real Sun's mean motion in Right Ascension; and the interval between the departure of any meridian from the Mean Sun, and its succeeding return, is the Mean Solar day, divided into 24 Mean Solar hours, and to which time clocks and watches are adjusted. The time deduced from observations of the real Sun, is called "Apparent" time, and is that shown by a Sun-dial. The "Mean" time is found from this, by applying a fluctuating difference called the "Equation of Time," given in Table III. The true Sun is only on the meridian four times in the year when the Mean time watch is at XII., namely, about the 15th April, 15th June, 1st September, and 24th December.

TABLE III .- " Equation of Time."

Day.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
	Add.	Add.	Add.	Add.	Sub.	Sub.	Add.	Add.	Sub.	Sub.	Sub.	Sub.
	m.	m.	m.	m.	m.	m.	m.	m.		m.	m.	m.
1	33	137	122	4	8	21	3 <u>1</u>	6	0	101	161	102
2	41	14	121	32	31	21	31	6	01	101	161	101
3	43	14	121	31	31	21	34	6	01	104	161	10
4	51	141	12	31	31	2	4	54	02	111	161	91
5	51	141	112	23	31	2	41/4	57	11	111	161	9}
6	6	141	113	21/2	31	12	41/4	53	11	112	161	9
7	61	141	111	21	31	13	41	51	2	12	161	81
8	62	141	11	2	32	11	43	5 1	21	121	16	8
9	71	141	104	12	34	1	42	51	23	121	16	71
10	72	14}	101	11	34	02	5	5 1	3	13	16	7
11	81	141	101	11	34	04	5	5	31	131	16	61
12	81	141	10	03	4	04	5	42	32	131	15%	61
13	82	143	91	01	4	0}	5 <u>1</u>	42	4	137	151	51
14	91	141	91	01	4	01	51	41	41	14	151	51
				Sub.		Add.		•	•			•
15	91	141	91	0	4	01	5 <u>1</u>	41	42	141	151	42
16	10	141	9	01	4	01	52	4	51	141	15	44
17	101	141	81	01	4	01	52	32	51	142	143	33
18	10}	141	81	02	4	01	6	32	6	142	143	31
19	11	141	8	1	37	02	6	31	61	15	141	23
20	111	14	72	11	32	1	6	3 <u>1</u>	61	151	141	21
21	111	14	71	11	32	12	6.	8	7	151	14	13
22	112	137	71	11	33	13	6	23	71	151	137	11
23	12	132	62	12	31	17	6	21	72	151	131	03
					_			-	•		•	Add.
24	121	181	61	2	3]	2	6	21	8	157	131	01
25	121	131	61	2	31	21	61	2	81	152	13	01
26	122	13}	52	21/4	3}	21	61	12	82	16	124	1
27	13	13	51	21	31	21	61	14	9	16	121	11
28	131	13	51	21	3	21	61	11	91	16	12	12
29	131	124	4	23	3	23	61	1	91	161	113	21
30	131		43	3	23	3	6	03	10	161	111	23
31	134	i	44	1	24	l	6	01		161	4	31

The word "add" denotes that the Equation of Time is to be added to Apparent (or Sun-dial) Time, in order to obtain Mean (or Clock) Time.

Conversion of Arc into Time. (See page 41).

Conversion of Longitude into R.A. (See page 48).

The Moon.

The Mean distance of the Moon from the centre of the Earth is 237630 miles, or nearly 60 radii of the Earth, so that it is sensibly nearer when on the Zenith. (In perigee its distance is 221290, and in apogee 251760). The diameter is 2153 miles. She comes to the Meridian, on an average 48m. earlier every day, and her motion Eastward through the stars is on a mean, 13° 10½' per diem, whilst the Sun in the same time progresses eastward through the stars 59' 8" per day; so that the Moon gains on the Sun on an average about 12'2 degrees a day. (Since the Moon's diameter averages 31½' and her actual motion 31½' per hour, she progresses Easterly through the stars, nearly her own diameter per hour.)

The period of the Moon's revolution round the Earth, reckoning from her departure from, till her return to, a particular star, is her "Sidereal Revolution," or 27d. 7h. 44 m.; but in the meantime, the Earth has advanced in her orbit, in the same direction, about 27°; so that at the rate of 13.2° per diem, it takes the Moon 2 days and 5 hours to catch up the Sun, and complete her "Synodic Revolution" of 29 d. 12 h. 44 m. It is this that is generally spoken of as a Lunation.

A "Node" is the point of the Ecliptic where the Moon (or a Planet) in its orbit, cuts the Ecliptic. The ascending Node Ω is the point of intersection as the Moon travels Northwards. The inclination of the Moon's orbit to the Ecliptic, is 5° 8′ 48″, and as the inclination of the Earth's orbit to the Equator is 23° 27½, the Moon's declination can never be above 28° 37′. The Nodes of the Moon have a retrograde motion, of the same kind as the Sun in the "precession of the equinoxes;" but it is much greater, being about 1° 30′ every month; so that in 18′6 years (called the Moon's cycle) she will have made an entire circuit, westerly, of the Ecliptic.

The Moon rotates on its axis in exactly the same time that it makes its "Synodic Revolution," so that we on the Earth always see the same portion of the Moon towards us.

A visual angle of 1" from the Earth subtends on the Moon's surface $\frac{237630}{206265} = 1.15$ miles.

Motion of the Moon in "Lunars."

Since the *Mean* motion of the Moon on that of the Sun, is (as above shewn) about $13\cdot2^{\circ}$ in 24 hours, or 360° of Longitude, an error of 1° in the observed "Distance" would on an average cause an error of $\frac{360^{\circ}}{13\cdot2^{\circ}} = 27\cdot3^{\circ}$; and an error of 1' in Distance an error of 27·3' of Longitude, or 1 m. 49 s. of Time.

However, as the minutes of Longitude are only equal to Nautical miles, when on the Equator, and decrease towards the Poles as the cosine of the Latitude, the error in Nautical miles for 1' of Distance, will in any Latitude, be $27.3 \times \cos$. Lat. So in Lat. 50° 12' (North or South) an error of 1' in the observed Distance will, at the Moon's Mean rate of motion, cause an error of 27.3×64 or $17\frac{1}{2}$ Nautical miles.

The error is at a minimum when the Moon gains most rapidly on the Sun, or 14° in 24 h. The error is then $\frac{360}{14} = 25.7'$ of Longitude, or 1 m. 43 s. of Time, for 1' of Distance. When the Moon gains least rapidly, or 10.2° in 24 h., the error is $\frac{360}{10.2} = 35.3'$ of Longitude, or 2 m. 21 s. of Time for 1' of Distance. These minutes of Longitude to be reduced to Nautical miles, must be multiplied by the cosine of the Latitude.

The "Proportional logarithms" attached to the "Lunar Distances" of the Sun in the Nautical Almanao, serve to point out the rate of the Moon's motion, and—when a Star is observed with the Moon,—which Star is most favourable; that Star being preferred which has the *least* proportional log. attached; for the greater the

velocity, the less the effect of an error in the observed Distance. For example, Aug. 11, 1863, the P. L. for the Sun's Distance is 3539; this is 1° 19′ 41″ for III. hours, or 10°224° in XXIV. hours. So again on the 24th March, 1865, the P. L. = 2333 = 1° 45′ 12″ for III. hours, or 14°024° for XXIV. N.B. The P. L. in these pages of the Nautical Almanac, refers to the change in III. hours between the Distance to which the P. L. is attached, and the next Distance following it.

Proportional Logarithms in Lunar Observations.

All the observations can be taken by one person, and the "Times" and "Altitudes" of the several observations can be reduced to the Time of the observation of the Lunar Distance, by using Proportional Logarithms, as follows:

Times by Watch.

	m. s			0	,	"			
21	38 24	Alt. Sun's. l. l.	=	13	51	0	Required	\mathbf{the}	Alti-
21	42 8	Alt. Moon's u. l.	=	27	25	20	tudes at	the mor	ment
21	49 33	DISTANCE	_	81	46	57	- the	" Distar	ace "
21	55 57	Alt. Moon's u. l.	=	25	24	20	was of	served,	i.e.
22	0 27	Alt, Sun's l. l.	==	15	48	40	21h. 49n	a. 33s.	

SUN.

As Interval between alts. 22m. 3s. Arith. compl. Prop. log. 9 0881
Is to 1st alt. to Distance 11m. 9s. Prop. log. 1 2080
So is Change of Altitude + 1° 57′ 40″ Prop. log. 0 1846

+ 0° 59′ 30″ = 0.4807

- 13° 51′ 0″

Sun's Alt. at 21h. 49m. 33s. 14° 50′ 30″

MOON.

As Interval between Alts. 13m. 49s.	Arith. compl. Prop. log. 8.8851
Is to 1st Alt. to Distance 7m. 25s.	Prop. log 1.3851
So is change of Altitude — 2° 1'	Prop. log 0.1725
•	$-1^{\circ} \cdot 4' \cdot 57'' = 0.4427$
	27° 25′ 20′′ ———
Moon's Alt. at 21h. 49	26° 20′ 23″

The usual method would be

I. 22.05m.: 11.15m.:: 1.96°: 0.99° II. 13.82m.: 7.42m.:: 2.02°: 1.08°

N.B.—The heavenly body farthest from the Meridian should be observed first and last, as its *rate* of motion varies least, though its *actual* motion is quickest.

Eclipses.

Since in a course of a Lunation, the Moon is once between the Earth and the Sun, and once places the Earth between itself and the Sun, there would in every Lunar month be an Eclipse of the Sun, and also an Eclipse of the Moon, if the Moon's orbit were in the same plane as the Earth's orbit or Ecliptic, because on each of the two occasions all three luminaries would be in a direct line. Owing however to the Moon's orbit being somewhat inclined, $(5^{\circ} 8' 48'')$ to the Earth's orbit or Ecliptic, it passes when at New and Full, generally above or below the line * that would join the three luminaries. But on those few occasions when the moon in her node (i.e. when her latitude = 0°) has a longitude the same as

^{*} There must be an Eclipse, more or less, of the Moon, if when at Full, she is not more than 9° 24' from her node; and may take place if within 11½°. If she is less than 3° 54', it will be total.

the longitude of the Sun's longitude, there will be an Eclipse of the Sun, if it is conjunction or New Moon, and when the Sun's longitude is 180° from the Moon in her node, there will be an Eclipse of the Moon, if it is opposition or Full Moon.

Seven is the greatest number of Eclipses that can happen in a year; and two the least. If there are seven, five must be of the Sun, and two of the Moon. If there be only two, both must be of the Sun; for in every year there are at least two Solar Eclipses. There can never be more than three Lunar Eclipses in a year, and in some years none at all.

Though there are four Solar Eclipses to three Lunar, yet there are more Lunar Eclipses visible in any particular place; because while a Lunar Eclipse is visible to an entire hemisphere, a Solar Eclipse is only visible to a small part of the Earth. This arises from the relative magnitude of the Sun and Moon: the former throwing its shadow far beyond the orbit of the Moon.

An eclipse of the Sun is total when the Moon's real shadow or "umbra" extends beyond the Earth's surface. For some distance around this spot, that is to say, within the "penumbra" (or shadow of the edge of the sun), there will be a partial Eclipse.

When the shadow of the moon does not extend to the Earth, a spectator situated in the prolongation of the axis of the conical shadow will see an annular eclipse of the sun. A total eclipse cannot last above seven minutes, the belt of the Earth's surface covered by it seldom exceeding 2°. A total eclipse of the Moon may last 1½ hours.

Nautical Almanac.

"Sidereal Time" is the same as "Right Ascension of the Mean Sun." The "Sidereal time at Mean Noon" is therefore the Right Ascension of the Mean Sun, at Mean Noon; i.e. the angular distance of the first point of Aries, or the true Vernal Equinox, from the Meridian, at Mean Noon; or the time which ought to be shown by a Sidereal Clock at Greenwich, when the Mean Time clock is at XII. The Sidereal clock shows 0h. 0m. 0s. every 24 (Sidereal) hours when the first point of Aries is on the Meridian at Greenwich.

If the place of observation be not on the meridian of Greenwick, the "Sidereal time," or "Right Ascension of the Mean Sun," must be corrected, by adding the "Acceleration" 9.86s. per hour of Longitude, if the place be to the west of Greenwich, and subtracting it if east. This is requisite on account of the Sun's R. A. varying 3m. 56.55s. every 24 hours. A star's R. A. does not vary at all.

The "Mean time of Transit of the first point of Aries" is the distance of the mean sun from the Meridian, when the first point of Aries (or true point of intersection of the Ecliptic and Equator) is on the Meridian of Greenwich, or the "Mean time at Sidereal Noon." It is the time which a Mean time clock should shew at Greenwich, when the Sidereal clock is at Oh. Om. Os.

To find the Time of Transit of a Star.

The rule in the footnote, p. 45, is near enough for all purposes at sea; but properly the Sun's A. R. is subject to a slight correction as just shewn, if the place be not in the Meridian of Greenwich.

Example. Required the Apparent, and the Mean Time of the transit of Aldebaran at a place in 45° (= 3h.) East Longitude, on the 16th Dec. (Astronomical time) 1864.

App. R. A. of Star, Dec 16 (p. 345 Naut. Alm.) 4h Sidl. Time at Mn. Noon, Dec. 16 = 17h. 4lm.)	. 28m	. 12·58s.
31 00s	41	1.43
	47	11.15
Deduct "Retardation" at 9.83s. per h —	1	46.03
* MEAN TIME of transit = 10	45	25.12
Or App. R. A. of Star, Dec. 16 (p. 345 Naut. Alm.) 4h. Deduct "Retardation" at 9.83s. per hour.		12·58s. - 43·94
Interval in Solar Time	27	28.64
Mean time of Transit of 1st point of Aries, at Noon, Dec. 16 = 6h.17m, 27:00s. Plus "Retardation" for 3h. E. Long. = 29:49	17	56·49
* MEAN TIME of transit as before = 10	45	25.13

To find the Meridian Altitude.

The Meridian altitude of a celestial body = the sum of the Declination and Colatitude when they are of the same name, or their difference when of contrary names; the altitude to be reckoned from the S. when the Latitude is N., and vice versa; but when the sum exceeds 90°, it is to be deducted from 180°, and the remaining altitude, reckoned from the S. in South Latitude and from the N. in North Latitude. Thus if the Latitude is 15° North, and the Star's Declination 20° North, the Meridian altitude will be 85° above the North point of the horizon.

To know what stars are visible in a given Latitude.

When the Polar Distance of a star (reckoning from the N. if the Latitude is N) exceeds 90° plus the Colatitude, the star is not visible at that place. Hence, in Lat. 51° N. no star whose S. Declination is greater than 39° is visible. When the Polar Distance is less than the latitude of the place, and of the same name, the star culminates both above and below the Pole.

^{*} The App. T. of transit may also be found by applying the Eq. Time (from the monthly page ii. of Naut. Alm.) for the Mean Time interval of 10h. 45m. 25·12s. In this Example, 3m. 41·02s. is to be added to "Mean Time of Transit."

Stars.

There are supposed to be about 75 millions of Stars separately visible in a good telescope; but not more than 4000 visible to the naked eye, and only half of these at a time. These include 2500 stars of the 6th Magnitude, which many persons cannot see as separate stars; so that those who have not very good eyes, can only distinguish about 1500 altogether; namely:—I. Mag. = 20; II. Mag. = 50; III. Mag. = 250; IV. Mag. = 500; V. Mag. = 700. The following are the brightest stars, in order:—

a	Canis Majoris (Sirius).	*a	Crucis.
*a	Argus (Canopus).	а	Virginis (Spica).
$*a^2$	Centauri.	а	Scorpii (Antares).
a	Boötis (Arcturus).	а	Piscis Australis (Fomelhaut)
β	Orionis (Rigel).		Leonis (Regulus).
a	Aurigæ (Capella).	β	Geminorum (Pollux).
a	Canis Minoris (Procyon).	a ²	Geminorum (Castor).
а	Lyræ (Vega).	a	Aquilæ (Altair).
	Orionis (Betelguese).		Crucis.
*a	Eridani (Achernar).	*2	Crucis,
а	Tauri (Aldebaran).	*a	Gruis.
	Centauri.	а	Cygni (Deneb).

(The first 20 are of the 1st Magnitude.) Then follow a, ϵ , and η , Ursa Majoris, ϵ Canis Majoris, ϵ Orionis, and a Hydræ (Alphard). The Polestar (a Ursa Minoris) is of the 2d Magnitude. η Argus in 1830 was a star of the 2d magnitude; in 1838 it became of the 1st, about equal to Arcturus; in 1843 it was equal to Canopus; since that time it has diminished to a star of the 2d magnitude. Its R. A. = 10h. 40m., and Decl. = 58° 51' S. See also p. 131.

Venus.

Venus may often be observed in the day-time, especially in low latitudes, to the great advantage of the Navigator. The planet appears brightest when its elongation (or distance E. or W. of the

^{*} The eight stars marked thus * are not visible in any North Lat. greater than 34°. The whole of the "Southern Cross" is visible as far North as Lat. 29° when the horizon is clear.

Sun) is about 40°, or about 5 weeks before and after inferior conjunction. At this time her diameter is about 40°, and her figure that of the crescent of the Moon 5 days old, the illuminated portion being about 13". When Venus is at superior conjunction, her diameter is only about 10", and hidden behind the Sun. When at inferior conjunction, the diameter is 62", but then the dark side being towards the Earth she is nearly invisible. If at this time the planet is exactly in a line with the Sun, there is a "Transit of Venus" across the Sun. It often happens that when Venus in the day-time is very indistinct to the naked eye, she may be seen distinctly by reflection in the horizon glass of the Sextant, by setting the instrument to about the Altitude (either computed, or found on a Globe), and sweeping the horizon under the Planet.

Error of Altitude affecting the Hour Angle.

I. When the Latitude and the Azimuth are known, the formula in page 55 will suffice. Example. Lat. = 50° N. Azimuth = N. 36° E. Cos. lat. and Sin. azim. = $\frac{.643 \times .588}{.0667} = 5.67'$ error of Altitude, makes a difference of 1 minute of Time in the Hour angle. Or, when the error in Alt. is known in minutes of arc, the error in Time in minutes is $\left(\frac{1}{\text{Cos. Lat.} \times \text{Sin. Az.}} \times \text{Error in Alt. in '}\right) \div 15$.

Thus Lat. 50° 48' N.; Star bearing S. b. E.; and error of Alt. = 4'. The error in Time is $2^{\circ}16$ m.

II. When the Latitude, Polar Distance, and Hour angle observed, are given, Sin. P. D. × Cos. lat. × Sin. H. A. × 15

Cosine Alt.

Altitude due to an error of 1 minute of Time in the Hour angle.

Example. Alt. = 49° 10′ P. D. = 67° 31′ Lat. = 32° 40′ H. A. = 45° 3′ then $\frac{.923 \times .842 \times .708 \times 15}{.654} = \frac{.550 \times 15}{.654} = 12.61′$ error of Altitude to 1 minute of Time in the Hour angle.

APPENDIX F.
USEFUL TABLES AND NOTES.

The angles made by every Point and Quarter of a Point of the compass with the meridian.

		Points.	A	ngle	8.	Points.		
360°	360°						180°	. 180°
NORTH.	North.		•	,	"	İ	South.	South.
		0 <u>}</u>	2	48	45	01		
	l	03	5	37	30	03		
11° 15′	348° 15'	03	8	26	15	02	168° 45′	191° 15′
N. b. E.	N. b. W.	I.	11	15	0	I.	8. b. E.	8. b. W.
		11	14	3	45	11		
		11	16	52	30	11		
22° 30′	337° 80'	12	19	41	15	12	157° 80′	202° 30′
N.N.E.	N.N.W.	11.	22	30	0	11.	8.S.E.	8.8.W.
	1	21	25	18	45	21		1
	,	21	28	7	30	21/2		
38° 45'	326° 15′	22	30	56	15	22	146* 15'	213° 45′
N.E. b. N.	N.W. b. N.	III.	33	45	0	III.	S.E. b. S.	8.W. b. s.
	i	31	36	83	45	31		
		81	3 9	22	30	31		Į.
45°	815°	34	42	11	15	37	185°	225°
N.E.	N.W.	IV.	45	0	0	IV.	8.E.	s.w.
	1	41	47	48	45	41		I
		41	50	37	30	41		
56° 15'	303° 45′	42	53	26	15	42	128° 45'	236 15'
N.E. b. E.	N.W. b. W.	v.	56	15	0	v.	8.E. b. E.	8.W. b. W.
	1	51	59	3	45	51		1
	1	5}	61	52	30	51		1
67° 30'	292° 30′	54	64	41	15	53	112° 80'	247° 30′
E.N.E.	w.n.w.	VI.	67	30	0	VI.	E.S.E.	W.s.W.
		61	70	18	45	61		
	,	61	73	7	30	61		
78° 45′	281° 15'	63	75	56	15	62	101° 15′	258° 45′
E. b. N.	W. b. N.	VII.	78	45	0	VII.	E. b. 8.	W. b. 8.
	1	71	81	33	45	71		1
		71	84	22	80	71		
90°	270°	72	87	11	15	75	90*	270°
EAST.	WEST.	VIII.	90	0	0	VIII.	EAST.	WEST.

Column 1 is just 180° difference, (or reverse) of Column 7. So Column 2 is the reverse of Column 6. (E.g. 146° 15' is the reverse of 326° 15'.)

Nat. Sines, Tangents, &c. to every Quarter Point.

POINTS.	Sine.	Cosine.	Tan.	Co-tan.	POINTS.	Chord.
0	·0000r	1.000	•0000	infinite.	VIII.	
01	·0491	-9988	-0491	20.35	72	·049
01	.0980	.9952	·0985	10.15	7-	• 0 98
02	1467	·9892	·1483	6.741	71	-147
I.	·1951	-9808	·1989	5.027	VII.	·196
11	.2430	-9700	·2505	3.992	63	· 24 5
11	.2903	•9579	.3033	3-297	61	•293
12	3369	·9415	-3578	2.795	61	.345
11.	.3827	-9239	·4142	2:414	VI.	.390
21	·4276	·9040	·4730	2.114	52	•438
21	4714	.8828	.5345	1.871	5 <u>1</u>	· 4 86
22	·5141	-8577	·599 4	1.668	51	.533
III.	·5556	-8315	-6682	1.497	v.	.581
31	·5957	-8032	·7416	1.348	42	·627
31	6344	·7730	*8207	1.218	41	·67 4
37	·6716	-7410	9063	1.103	44	.720
IV.	·7071	.7071	1.000	1.000	IV.	· 7 65
	Cosine.	Sine.	Co-tan.	Tan.		

VERNIER.

To estimate how near it will read to.

Reduce the value of each division of the Degree, on the limb, to seconds; and divide it by the total number of divisions on the Vernier.

Example.

A Sextant has each Degree on the limb divided into 4 parts. The Vernier has altogether 60 divisions. Here each of the 4 parts on the limb = 15', or 900". Then $\frac{900}{66} = 15''$; to which the Vernier will read.

OR

The parts on the limb being 4, and the divisions on the Vernier being 60, we have $\frac{3600''}{4 \times 60} = 15''$ as before (3600'' being constant).

VIBRATIONS OF THE COMPASS CARD.

Let a =extreme vibration one way. b =extreme the other way. c =extreme vibration 3d in direction Mean point of Vibration.

DECIMALS OF AN HOUR.

MIN.	Dec.	MIN.	Dec.	SEC.	Dec.	SEC.	Dec.
1	·01667	31	·51667	1	-00028	31	-00861
2	-03333	82	·53383	2	*00056	32	-00889
8	·05000	33	-55000	8	-00083	33	-00917
4	-06667	34	-56667	4	-00111	84	00944
5	-08388	35	·58333	5	·00138	35	-00972
6	10000	36	·60000	6	-00167	36	·01000
7	·11667	37	·61667	7	·00194	37	·010 2 8
8	13883	38	-63883	8	00222	38	·010 56
9	·15000	39	-65000	9	·00250	39	*01033
10	·16667	40	*66667	10	-00278	40	-01111
11	18333	41	·68333	11	-00306	41	.01139
12	-20000	42	-70000	12	-00833	42	·01 167
13	·21667	43	-71667	13	-00861	43	·01194
14	•23333	44	73333	14	•00389	44	-01222
15	·25000	45	·75000	15	·00417	45	-01250
16	·26667	46	·76667	16	00444	46	·01278
17	•28333	47	·78333	17	*00472	47	·01306
18	·30000	48	-80000	18	-00500	48	·01333
19	*31667	49	-81667	19	·00528	49	·01361
20.	-33333	50	-88833	20	· 0 0556	50	-01389
21	*85000	51	·85000	21	-00583	51	·01417
22	*36667	52	·86667	22	-00511	52	'01444
23	*38333	58	-88333	23	-00639	58	·0147 2
24	•40000	54	90000	24	-00667	54	-01500
25	·41667	55	91667	25	-00694	55	01528
26	•48833	56	93833	26	.00722	56	-01556
27	*85000	57	95000	27	.00750	57	-01583
28	·46667	58	96667	28	-00778	58	-01611
2,9	48338	59	-98388	29	-00806	59	-01639
30	·50000	60	1.000	30	-00833	60	·01667

86400 seconds, or 1440 minutes in 24 h. 1296000" or 21600' in 360°

CHRONOMETER.

	Sailing E.	Sailing W.	
	The Chronometer has		
The land made unexpectedly.	gained more or lost less.	gained less or <i>lost</i> more.	
The land not made so soon as expected.	gained less or lost more.	gained more or lost less.	

Thus, a vessel in the Bay of Bengal, running in for the land of the Coromandel Coast, when it is 8 h. 45 m. a.m. Mean Time at Ship, finds her chronometer 3 h. 21 m.; or a difference of 5 h. 24 m. or 81° 00′ E. Longitude. She immediately after, makes the land unexpectedly, and finds an error of half a degree in the Longitude; i.e. that at 8 h. 45 m. Ship Time, the Chronometer should have shown 3 h. 23 m.; or a difference of 5 h. 22 m. = 80° 30′ the true Longitude.

PERIODIC STARS.

The star o Ceti, (Mira), in the neck of the "whale" is of a high 2d magnitude for about 14 days; it then decreases, till in 3 months it is invisible. It reappears after 5 months, and, in 3 months more, gradually increases to its maximum splendour.

Algol in the head of Medusa (8 Persei) generally appears as of the 2d magnitude; but an interval of 7 hours occurs at the expiration of every 62 hours, during the first 3½ of which it gradually diminishes to the 4th magnitude, and, during the next 3½ hours, it increases to its maximum brightness.

The star & Cephei passes from 3½ magnitude to the 5th, in 91 hours; and back again in 38 hours.

The star β Lyme has a period of 12 days, 22 hours; and in that time it first increases, then decreases, then increases again, and then decreases; so that it has 2 maxima and 2 minima. At the 2 maxima its lustre is $3\frac{1}{2}$, and at the minima $4\frac{1}{2}$ and $4\frac{1}{6}$.

The star a Orionis is sometimes nearly equal to β Orionis in lustre, and sometimes below it. The stars $a \in \eta$ in Ursæ Majoris are slightly variable. The first is sometimes of first magnitude, and ϵ of the 3d; but in this constellation of 7 bright stars, (4 in the body, and 3 in the tail,) six are generally of the same magnitude, and δ (at the junction of tail and body,) less. A line from ϵ Urs. Maj. to the Polestar passes through the north pole (distant 1° 26' from the Polestar;) so that when these 2 stars are at the same altitude, the Polestar is at its greatest eastern or western elongation, and its altitude is then the latitude of the observer. From a to $\eta = 25\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. The "Pointers" $5\frac{1}{8}^{\circ}$ apart.

A star is said to rise "heliacally," when after being in conjunction with the sun, and consequently invisible, it rises so soon before the sun (say about an hour) as to be visible when just risen, in the morning twilight. (In a day or two more it rises so long before the sun, that it is no longer visible).

A star is said to set "heliacally," when just as it is setting, (and not before), it becomes visible in the evening twilight. It is then about \frac{2}{3} hour after the sun. In a day or two more, it has gained on the sun, is immersed in its rays, and is no longer visible.

A star is said to rise or set "acronically," when it rises at sunset, or sets at sunrise.

A star is said to rise or set "cosmically," when it rises and sets exactly with the sun, and is therefore not visible at the time.

FORCE OF THE WIND.

The force is usually estimated from 1 a light air, to 12 a severe tempest. The observations in the 5th column refer to a large sailing vessel on a wind.

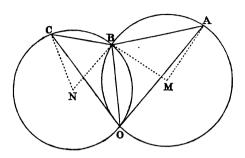
No.	Pressure in lbs. per square foot.	Velocity in miles per hour.		
I.	to ilb.	4 to 7	Light airs	
II.	i to ilb.	7 to 12	Light breeze	Just fill the royals.
III.	3 to 1 lb.	12 to 15	Moderate breeze.	Just carry royals.
IV.	1 to 11 lbs.	15 to 17	Fine breeze	Just carry top-gallt, sails
V.	11 to 11 lbs.	17 to 18	Fresh breeze	Top-gallt. sails and 1 reef
VI.	11 to 2 lbs.	18 to 20	Strong breeze	In top-gallant sails.
VII.	2 to 2½ lbs.	20 to 24	Hard breeze	Double reefed topsails.
VIII.	21 to 31 lbs.	24 to 30	Half a gale	One reef in courses.
IX.	3½ to 7 lbs.	30 to 40	Whole gale	Treble reefed topsails.
X.	, 7 to 101bs.	40 to 50	Hard gale	Close reefed topsails.
XI.	10 to 20 lbs.	50 to 60	Heavy gale	Lying to.
XII.	20 to 30 lbs.	60 to 80	Tempest	

To find the position of a ship or boat, from 2 angles to objects laid down on the Chart.

Ex. 1.—Let ABC in the figure, be three objects laid down on the Chart. The observer at O takes the angle $BOA = 46^{\circ}$, and $BOC = 30^{\circ}$. Join AB, BC; lay off the angles BAM, ABM, each equal to the complement of 46° , which is 44° ; then the intersection of the lines AM, BM, is the centre of the circle ABO.

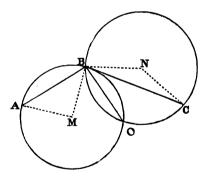
In like manner lay off BCN, CBN, each equal to the complement

of 30, which is 60° ; then N is the centre of the circle CBO, and where the two circles cut, at O, is the place of the observer.



Ex. 2.—The angle between \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} is 47°; that between \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{C} is 107°.

Lay off ABM, BAM, each equal 43°; M is the centre of ABO.



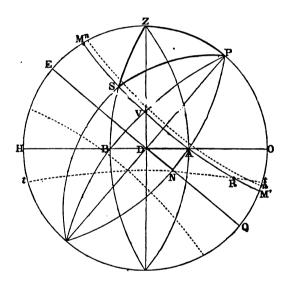
Lay off CBN, BCN, each equal to the complement of 107°, or 17°; then N is the centre of CBO; and where the two circles cut at O, is the place of the observer.

APPENDIX G.

(Pages 42 and 50.)

Projection of the Sphere, on the plane of the Meridian.

Let P be the elevated Pole,—EQ the Equinoctial,—HO the Horizon,—nn the sun's greatest declination, 23° 28',—tt the line of twilight 18° below the horizon.



Then

OP or ODP = the latitude of the place.

MM' = the sun's daily path at the place, that day. (See NA, page 136.)

R = the sun emerging from darkness to twilight.

A = the sun rising on the horizon.

V = the sun when on the prime vertical.

S =the sun at an altitude of about 47°.

M = the sun when on the meridian.

DA, or DZA = the amplitude.

DN, or DPN = the ascensional difference.

NA = the sun's declination 20° North.

ADN, or QDO == the co-latitude.

When the sun is at S.

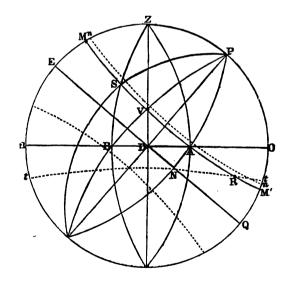
ZS = zenith distance.

ZPS = hour angle from meridian, or about 3 h.

ZP = co-latitude.

PS = polar distance.

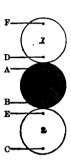
PZS = azimuth, or arc OB.



ARTIFICIAL HORIZON.

I. The direct telescope used.

When the sights are taken in the morning, A is the lower limb of the sun reflected direct on the mercury, and B the upper limb. C and D are the lower limbs reflected on the mercury through the sextant; the Sun in the morning appearing to rise from 2 to 1, and the angle increasing. The observation for contacts of the *lower* limb is read off when A and D are in contact; or for the *upper* limb when E and B are in contact.



II. The inverting telescope used.

The sun in the morning appears to fall from 1 to 2; and the observation for the *lower* limb is read off when E and B are in contact; or for the *upper* limb, when A and D are in contact.

N.B.—It is better not to use the turn-down coloured shades, but to screw on the red glass to the eye-piece.

In observing at sea, correct for Index Error, Dip, and Parallax; and for the remainder take out the Refraction. Then correct for Semi-diameter.

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